The Nation.

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The Week.

In an interview published on Friday, Senator Burrows declares that the Beet-Sugar Convention to be held in Washington City on the 8th of January will decide whether the Cuban treaty of reciprocity shall be ratified or not. That is, the Convention will decide whether a reduction of 20 per cent. from the Dingley rates of duty on Cuban sugar will materially injure the beet-sugar industry in the United States. He thinks it most likely that they will sanction the treaty, but if they do not, then the same Senators who blocked the Cuban relief bill last year will oppose the present treaty. He believes that they will be able to defeat it, since debate in the Senate is unlimited and a two-thirds vote is required for ratification; while the Democrats will try to foment quarrels in the Republican ranks. "The sugar beets of the West," he says in conclusion, "may expect as much consideration as was given the codfish of Massachusetts." Nobody can object to that phase of the case. Let us have fair play, and ratify both the Newfoundland treaty and the Cuban treaty, and then we shall be in better temper to consider the French treaty when Senator Cullom calls it up.

Article viii. of the new treaty of reciprocity with Cuba needs amendment, either in form or in substance, or both. The text is as follows:

> "The rates of duty herein granted by the United States to the Republic of Cuba are, and shall continue during the term of this convention, preferential in respect to all like imports from other countries; and, in return for said preferential rates of duty granted to the Republic of Cuba by the United States, it is agreed that the concession herein granted on the part of the said Republic of Cuba to the products of the United States shall likewise be, and shall continue during the term of this convention, preferential in respect to all like imports from other countries."

These words may mean merely that the most-favored-nation clause in our treaties with other countries shall not operate to admit the goods of those countries on the same terms as Cuban goods, without special treaties to that end. This would be the interpretation most commonly put upon it, since any other meaning would tie our hands for five years, and prevent us from making similar treaties with Germany, France, Great Britain, Russia, Brazil, or any other sugar-producing country. Yet the language used may be held to have the latter signification. "The rates of duty herein granted by the United States to the Republic of Cuba," it says, "are and shall continue, during the term of this convention, preferential in respect to all like imports from other countries." There is no exception here even of the Philippines, which, under the rulings of the Supreme Court, are another country, although subject to our legislation. There should be no clauses in the ratified treaty open to two interpretations. Especially should there be no clause restricting us as buyers of sugar at low rates of duty to one small patch of the earth's surface, and tying the hands of future Presidents and Congresses in that behalf.

The question of the "open door" in the trade of eastern Asia has come up again (as we predicted it would) in connection with the discriminating duty on Manila hemp exported from the Philippines. The Philippine Commission, in its wisdom, put an export duty of $7.50 per ton on that article when shipped to other countries than the United States. This discrimination was ratified by our Congress. It received little attention from the press at the time, and it is not known even now what influences contributed to so glaring an infraction of the principles we have contended for in the trade of the Orient. In searching for the guilty parties, one would naturally look to see who profits by the transaction. Evidently they are the manufacturers of cordage in the United States. If they can get their raw material $7.50 per ton cheaper than their foreign competitors, they can supplant them in neutral markets. But foreign governments have made representations to our Government on this matter. Germany and England have pointed it out as an infraction of the open-door policy, and have expressed the hope that it may not be continued to the hurt of their subjects. Secretary Hay has turned the correspondence over to Secretary Root, who has transmitted it to the Senate Committee on Philippine Affairs to be considered in connection with the pending Philippine tariff bill. Of course, there is only one thing to do, and that is, to repeal the discriminating export duty. Otherwise, our open-door policy will be in ruins in the Orient whenever it suits other countries to disregard it. Both England and Germany have it in their power to retaliate. They can make us lose more in other places than we shall ever gain from this export duty on Manila hemp. The honor of the country is concerned in undoing as soon as possible a transaction which bears so sinister an appearance.

An officer now in the Philippines who has had occasion to employ considerable labor for military purposes, writes us in opposition to the theory that the Filipinos will not perform manual labor. He states that there are at present about 200 Tagalog workmen employed in the Manila arsenal, making saddles, working on ammunition, etc. This kind of skilled labor seems to give absolute satisfaction. Ilocano day laborers at Vigan were found to be industrious and willing when put at the hardest tasks, for which they were paid $6.50 and $7.50 per month. Our informant thinks that a great deal depends on the way the men are handled, and adds, "I have seen Americans swear at natives for not understanding orders given in such a miserable apology for Spanish that not even a native Spaniard could have understood, much less a Tagalog. I often wonder that we Americans get any work out of them at all." This officer is of the opinion, however, that Chinese laborers are more industrious, thrifty, and economical than Filipinos, but he believes that in the long run they will only injure the country if they are brought over in such numbers as to enable American capital to obtain a speedier return than would otherwise be possible. So far from believing in Professor Jenks's proposed system of coolie slavery, our correspondent thinks that the Filipinos should be allowed to develop themselves—slowly, at first, if necessary, but none the less in their own way. Unfortunately, the capitalistic influences behind the proposed exploitation of the Philippines are not of the kind to wait for any normal development of the archipelago, unless they are compelled to do so.

Gen. Miles seems to have some very curious notions about the duties of a commanding general in regard to criticisms of army officers for alleged cruelties. If he were to follow the example of at least one of his superiors, he would content himself with denying any and all charges, and would simply decline to investigate and see for himself. This was the War Department's policy in the case of the Catholic friar who was murdered by the water-cure. Gen. Miles refuses, however, to follow any such bad example and has insisted upon making, or having made, some rigid investigations of the conduct of officers never accused heretofore—among them Capt. R. L. Howze, Sixth Cavalry, whom Mr. McKinley made a brigadier-general of volunteers for alleged brilliant services. Instigated by Gen. Miles, Col. Foote of the Twenty-eighth Infantry has unearthed some more cases of water-cure. It is quite characteristic that the press reports insinuate that Filipino money is being used to prosecute Major Glenn, who is now being tried a second time—as if money could be used in any way in

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connection with an army court-martial. There never was a plainer illustration of the fact that "murder will out." President Roosevelt, Secretary Root, and any number of subservient generals have declared again and again that there were only a few cases, and that the offenders had been punished. Now, a year after the first cases were exposed, more and more are leaking out, and the War Department is forced to admit, as in the case of Friar Augustine, the truth of the anti-Imperialist charges. Gen. Miles in this matter is certainly putting Secretary Root to the blush.

The artists who are petitioning Congress to put all works of art produced fifty years ago on the free list, very properly hope for the support of the President. This Mr. Roosevelt can hardly refuse, for the duty on works of art is perhaps the single schedule that could be abolished without raising a howl from some afflicted infant industry. The measure which is to be presented to Congress is framed to meet protectionist susceptibilities. It retains the duty on paintings and sculpture not fifty years old, thus preserving—although no American artist desires state relief from foreign competition—a semblance of protection. The President should not fail to see that here is an easy way of proving to an incredulous people that the tariff can be revised downward by its friends. If the beet-sugar people came to him saying "Please free our beets from the galling discrimination of a needless subsidy"; if the Gloucester fishermen should cry for "free fish and no favor," how could the President refuse them? How, then, can he fail to give ear to those less vociferous persons, the artists of America, when they plead to him the cause of self-respect and of civilization?

Should a Trust, that, like the Standard Oil, raises the price of fuel during a winter when the usual supply has been restricted be considered "good" or "bad" according to Mr. Roosevelt's moral scale for mergers? Doubtless, the President knows just what companies he has in mind when he speaks of bad Trusts; but he is not inclined at present to share his knowledge with others, so that we are left almost wholly to conjecture in this matter. So let us ask whether there is any method by which this particular Trust could be disciplined in case the President should decide that it deserves chastisement. It is often said that the Standard Oil Company is in no way affected by the tariff, and this concern has often been employed to illustrate the theory that the Trusts can not be reformed by making changes in the Dingley Bill. Now we will not assert that the tariff was a factor in the original growth of the oil combination, but we should like to call the President's attention to the fact that the law of 1897 contains a "little joker" that is of interest in connection with the recent advance in oil. Petroleum and its products occupy a conspicuous place on the present free list, but the act has a little proviso to the effect that, "if there be imported into the United States crude petroleum, *or the products of crude petroleum*, produced in any country which imposes a duty on petroleum or its products exported from the United States, there shall in such cases be levied, paid, and collected a duty . . . equal to the duty imposed by such country." Now this applies, obviously, to Russia, the only competitor that could seriously annoy the Standard Oil Company. Oil produced in any country that can offer no effective competition is admitted free of duty, but the only product that could possibly mitigate the conditions caused by the recent rise of price is rigorously excluded. It is a fair inference that the President believes in preserving the "home market" for the Trusts; but we wonder whether he would consider this principle applicable to bad Trusts as well as good.

A former Representative in Congress and a former Federal judge has just given his views on the "lily white" movement in North Carolina, and in doing so Mr. H. G. Ewart uses such "strong language" about ex-Senator Marion Butler that it "cannot be printed." We are certainly of the opinion that the movement can be properly characterized only by the use of some very forcible adjectives. For downright selfishness it would be hard to parallel the conduct of those soulless leaders like Senator Pritchard, who, after having got into power by the aid of negro voters, are now ready to abandon them and to acquiesce in their deprivation of the suffrage. As Mr. Ewart points out, the Democratic boards of registration, despite unfair tests and frequent discriminations due to local prejudices, still found it right and proper to allow votes to six thousand negroes, the very best men of their race. To refuse to allow these men to take part in the councils of the Republican party is, as Judge Ewart says, "not only a cowardly, but a most asinine policy." It certainly smacks of "treachery and base ingratitude," no matter how much its apologists may seek to conceal its real meaning by hypocritical explanations that it is all done in the interest of the negro. The only redeeming feature of the situation is the readiness of men like Mr. Ewart to speak the truth.

Every question about Platt's reëlection has been met by certain people with the reply: "Anyway, he has the votes." But has he? The answers which the *Evening Post* has received from Republican members of the Legislature do not indicate that this is certain. There are in the Senate 28 Republicans and in the Assembly 89, a total of 117 on joint ballot. Assuming that the seat made vacant by the death of Senator Trainor cannot be filled in time for the election of United States Senator, the successful candidate must have 100 votes, the total vote being 199. In other words, if there are 18 Republicans in the Legislature who will not vote for Senator Platt he has *not* the votes. Now, of the 117 Republicans in the Legislature, only 28 have replied openly to the *Evening Post's* letter of inquiry. No less than seven, or a quarter of all who have replied, have clearly indicated that they are as yet unwilling to commit themselves; several others, though answering in terms probably intended not to anger Platt, have carefully left loopholes for use in case of need. As many as eighty-nine members have not replied at all. This might be taken as indifference to the *Evening Post's* canvass if it were not that the Simon-pure Platt legislators have hastened to reply. But where are the others? Do they not care to "please the old man" also? Are they, perhaps, cogitating about a political future in which Senator Platt is not an important factor?

Chicago householders are likely in the future to have their dwellings plainly labelled to this effect, viz.: The woodwork, plaster, decoration, plumbing, painting, all duly certified by placard as the work of respective branches of the associated building trades. It is to be presumed that only those who are opposed to the cause of labor will protest against the liberal use of the union label, for the labor unions have made of this identification and consecration of their handiwork a fixed policy. Their programme clearly presupposes novel ethical views of a strictness which orthodox Calvinism can hardly equal. The unions distinguish between fair wainscoting (*i. e.*, put up by unionists), and unfair wainscoting (*i. e.*, the same material and workmanship, but constructed by non-unionists); similarly are distinguished good plumbing and bad plumbing, not according to the working of cocks and traps and valves, but according to the union ticket in the pockets of those who made and laid the pipes; or, again, honorable wallpaper is that pasted by the paperhangers' union on union plaster, while dishonorable wallpaper is the same paper hung by anybody else. We can imagine that this discrimination may have troubled Chicagoans, little given to transcendental categories, and the use of the union label is doubtless a convenience, just as it would be a practical help to the Calvinists we have already cited if all except the elect were plainly branded with the mark of the beast.

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From the point of view of the unions, however, this form of fetishism is a little confusing, and likely to lead them into all kinds of unprofitable speculation quite apart from their practical aims. Recently, an engineer in a new apartment building in this city refused to make trifling repairs on a leaking steampipe because that was the work of the steamfitter. The steam went through the building for a day or so, bringing down union plaster and warping union woodwork. The landlord of the building has had a costly lesson in transcendental unionism. Again, a lady in the course of refitting her house had two antique eighteenth-century mantelpieces put in. Their advent was reported by the workmen, and soon arrived the walking delegate to inquire if the mantelpieces were union-made. There were no unions in New York State before 1800, was the reply. Then they are not union-made and must come out, was the inexorably logical demand. The lady, with a truly feminine misconception of abstract reasoning, defied the walking delegate, who promptly stopped the work, leaving the house minus the front stairs and other necessaries. For three months this courageous woman has stood by her colonial fireplaces, and used the back stairs in a dismantled house—all because she could not understand why eighteenth-century joinery was, transcendentally considered, "unfair."

Chicago, like New York, is appalled at its water waste. It is estimated that fully 75 per cent. of the water pumped into the pipes is lost because of carelessness and leakage. The per-capita consumption now reaches the enormous figure of 164 gallons a day, although 70 gallons would be an extravagant figure. It is estimated that the city throws away $1,832,483 a year merely for pumping this wasted water. Just as is the case here, Chicago is face to face with the necessity of spending millions for new waterworks unless it can cut down the consumption. The City Engineer, who is much aroused over the situation, has made the far from radical recommendation that meters be placed on 40 per cent. of the faucets now in use. He is convinced that if this is done there will be a saving of $500,000 a year, and that the city could provide for any legitimate increase in the demand for water for years to come. New York already has meters in its factories and business houses, but it must soon come to their installation in apartment-houses and private dwellings. That there will be some prejudices to overcome is to be expected. As the Chicago *Evening Post* points out, however, this prejudice is wholly irrational. It is of the opinion that the change to meters would bear less heavily on small families and upon the very poor.

President James of Northwestern University, in appointing a "university drummer," has only given official standing to a customary practice. In older days in the Middle West it was not uncommon to send out a kind of academic gospel wagon, accompanied by the college glee club. This combination proved irresistible to the sub-freshmen of a ruder time. In the East, subtler methods have been employed; but the team captains who visit the great preparatory schools, and the alumni who teach in such institutions, have been, in a quite honorable sense, amateur university drummers. President James's drummer is apparently to be a professional, whose duty will be to explain persuasively to uncommitted schoolboys and undecided parents the advantages of Northwestern University. To many this will seem a method calculated to inculcate in the freshmen of Professor James's institution an inordinate self-esteem. While the vision of four hundred university drummers (assuming that President James's innovation becomes a precedent) descending upon the preparatory schools of the country is not reassuring, judgment should be suspended until the methods of the academic advance agent are known. Will he hold before the high-school boys the scholarly attainments of his faculty and the specific advantages of the curriculum of his university, or will he suggest other careers open to talents? It is significant in this regard that an Eastern university, thoroughly beaten this season on the football field, expects to capture all the school athletes next fall. The teams of its chief rival are so strong that no newcomer may enter there with a reasonable hope of ever "making the 'varsity." A skilled university bagman would doubtless find many similar ways of making all things work together for the good of his alma mater.

The six British hatters who have been forbidden to land at the port of Sydney may console themselves with the thought that their case is a parable. The future historian will grasp at that strange perversion of the idea of empire which made the Commonwealth of Australia, after voting ships to the British navy and hurrying troopers to the veldt, refuse admission to six British workmen who were seeking to better their fortunes in a British colony. Of course, there is a reason for so unreasonable an action. An Australian law, framed to prevent the importation of laborers during strikes, is suddenly found to apply to all labor imported under engagement. Naturally, there is a labor union to force Premier Barton's reluctant hand, and now the official attitude of Australia is, as the London *Economist* puts it, "that the set of workingmen happening at this time to have acquired domicile in Australia have some inherent title to monopolize all the employment which is going there." Meanwhile, the six rejected hatters are likely to be as historic as the Burghers of Calais. Their mishap shows how inevitably empire fails to meet the normal conditions of civilized life, and how powerless it is, both against such short-sighted selfishness as is here illustrated, and against the healthy growth of local or national spirit. Religious fanaticism, militant commerce, personal ambition have time and again built up great empires, but not one of them has stood for any length of time except through the military supremacy of the ruler or the cowardice of his subjects. How little it is true that the empire means peace will be felt when it is remembered that while Australia is treating these six hatters like criminals or madmen, Mr. Chamberlain is on his way to the latest imperial conquests, seeking to repair the havoc to make which Australia gladly paid her share in money and in the blood of her best.

That the Sultan of Morocco should be hard pressed by a native rival is nothing new. For years, every Sultan has had to fight for his throne. In the present rebellion there would be no cause for special interest, much less for the flutter of alarm which the news is causing in Europe, were it not that the Moroccan trouble has far wider bearings than the mere domestic concerns of the Sultanate. The truth is that Morocco has for a long time been regarded as a possible explosion-point. Within a twelvemonth, Mr. Bryce, with that sagacity and stored information which mark him out among statesmen, has predicted that Morocco would be the next scene of Imperialistic exploitation. The Sultanate has been closely hemmed in and almost invaded by foreigners. The French have steadily pushed westward from Algiers; and the common expectation in France has been that all the littoral up to the Straits will one day be under the tricolor. The Franco-Spanish *entente*, including, as it has been supposed, a secret treaty covering new delimitations in North Africa, has been taken as a sure index to French ambitions in Morocco. With this has been put, by suspicious observers in England and the Dreibund, the fact that Russia not long since established an embassy in Tangier. This was held to be, in view of the fact that there are practically no Russians in the Sultanate, a somewhat ostentatious notification that the Franco-Russian alliance was going to have something to say about the partition of Morocco. Possibly, a new Anglo-French treaty of African delimitation may settle the whole question amicably. The occasion is obviously one for thanking our stars that here, at any rate, is an international problem with which we are not called upon to meddle. Would that the Philippines were to us even as Morocco!

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THE RIGHT KIND OF ARBITRATION.

After mature reflection, President Roosevelt has wisely decided not to accept the rôle of arbitrator between Venezuela and the European Powers, but to adhere to his first recommendation, that the questions be referred to the Hague Tribunal. By so doing he has avoided serious dangers for the country and for himself, and if his conduct in the future course of the controversy shall be governed by equal prudence, we shall have reason to be devoutly thankful. Great care must be taken to avoid accidental explosion of one kind and another in the progress of the settlement. The nearer we are to the scene of the trouble, and the more we are mixed up with it, the more chances there will be of an accident which may imperil our own peace and quiet.

If this were a difficulty between Germany and Turkey, or between England and Sweden, and our President were asked to take the place of arbitrator, the reasons, if any, for declining would be quite different from those operating in the present case. The Monroe Doctrine is lodged, without any clear definition, in the minds of millions of Americans who are ready to take fire at any time at any supposed infraction of it or disrespect to it. All these people can understand arbitration by an impartial tribunal like the one established at The Hague, and will be disposed to acquiesce in it. An arbitration by President Roosevelt would keep us dangerously close to the *corpus delicti* for months, would expose his decisions to criticism by the Democrats as truckling to foreigners, and as yielding some part of the precious Doctrine to further assault by Old World monarchies. The fear of attack by political opponents would operate as a bias in his own mind. It is the part of prudence for us to push the controversy as far from our own shores as possible. Having lodged it securely at The Hague, we should take the attitude of respectful silence pending the decision.

The question, as regards ourselves, having been thus happily disposed of, there seems to be no place to send the dispute except to the Hague Tribunal, or at all events none so fitting as that. The reasons why may be briefly recapitulated. In the first place, that court has been established by the solemn act of civilized nations expressly to try such causes. It is peculiarly fitted to try them. It has judges already appointed for the purpose. Having been named beforehand, they are beyond the reach of suspicion of bias. General rules of procedure have been laid down, and the mode of creating special rules for special cases has been fixed. The Court has just begun to discharge its high duties. It still has its reputation to make, and to this end all cases which actually arise and are suited to its powers and jurisdiction, ought to be sent to it. It is the bounden duty of every government which is a party to those agreements to avail itself of the moral grandeur which the Hague Tribunal stands for; and by so doing to add to the dignity and weight of its authority in the coming time. Equally is it the duty of the non-signatory Powers to avail themselves of it, a door having been left open for them to come in of their own choice. It is gratifying to know that Venezuela is ready to accept the jurisdiction of the Hague Tribunal. The dispatches say that she accepts it on certain conditions, but there is no doubt that we can name the conditions upon which she will put in her appearance. Of course, the blockade and all other acts of war will cease as soon as the terms of arbitration are settled.

To contribute to the world's peace, to diminish the loss and misery which war entails, was the first aim of the Hague conferees. To create a body of international law which the world will accept and be governed by was the next part of their programme. Obviously, this is not to be done by decision of King Oscar, or President Roosevelt, or Emperor William. However learned and eminent may be the counsellors chosen by them to study the law and the facts in given cases, they cannot command the attention and carry the weight which belongs to a tribunal specially designated for the trial of such causes. In every country there are as good lawyers off the bench as on it, but the bench alone speaks with authority. Its decisions alone go into the books and become precedents and rules of conduct for generations of men. So, too, will the rulings of the Hague Tribunal operate upon the public opinion which directs the policy of nations. A decision of the Venezuelan case by President Roosevelt would indeed be interesting and would settle that particular case, but it would not settle a similar case arising in another part of the world, while an identical decision by the Hague Court would most likely be adhered to in future disputes, and would avoid the necessity of a new trial where the grounds of controversy were the same. This is the very *raison d'être* of a court, whether local, or national, or international.

These reasons for sending the case to the Hague Tribunal are general in their nature, applying to the whole world, and to the future as well as the present time. Those which are peculiar to the parties themselves are perhaps even stronger. The man who goes into a powder magazine with a lighted candle exposes the region roundabout to great danger, but the risk to his own safety is greatest of all. Any piece of bad luck in Venezuelan waters, a mistake of orders, an error of eyesight, or the act of a rash and hot-tempered officer, might produce a condition of affairs uncontrollable by all the governments concerned. It is not pleasant to dwell upon such contingencies, and we therefore dismiss them with renewed thankfulness that they have been happily avoided.

SILENCING THE PRESS.

St. Petersburg dispatches recently gave a list of topics about which the Czar had commanded all Russian editors to be silent. Napoleon's muzzling or manipulation of the press is an old story. His suppression of free debate extended not only to newspapers, but to book-publishers and even romance-writers. "A printing-house," he said, "is a powder-magazine into which every fool must not be allowed to enter." Only last year a German writer published a volume about Napoleon's control of the press of Germany. Journal after journal was confiscated, while those left alive were kept under police surveillance and most rigorous rules. In general, the Emperor lived up to his cynical saying that balls and the opera furnished "excellent subjects for editorials," but that he could not have the gazettes "meddling with politics."

We in America laugh or rage at all this, in our complacent way, but it is a question if our own newspapers are not more and more silenced by ukase or *mot d'ordre*. With all the enterprise, with all the prying curiosity and the vaunted publicity of the American press, there are too many signs that some topics are forbidden it. It is not Czar or Emperor who issues his commands—only a boss or an advertiser; but the result is the same. Inasmuch as the people have come to look to the newspapers for the exposure of villanous politicians or rotten financial schemes, it is obvious that the service of suppressing the news and burking discussion is one that jobbers in politics or in stocks can afford to pay for handsomely. Silence is to them golden indeed. It is so very simple. You do not have to say a word in favor of men whom you abhor or measures that you know to be shady; you merely have to keep still about them, and write with Napoleonic zest on balls and the opera.

Close readers of our indefatigable metropolitan press must have been struck, for example, with its almost complete silence of late about two subjects of prime importance. One of them was the financial operations of a large insurance company. Its plans were so questionable that they were fought and enjoined in court, and finally abandoned by the promoters in alarm; but only one New York newspaper made any editorial reference to the matter. It was a case where a fundamental principle of finance was at stake, where great interests affecting many people were involved, where insurance commissioners in several States were in full outcry, yet the "great met-

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ropolitan dailies," as they love to call themselves, were dumb. The reason? Why, there was no concealment of it. The large company was a large advertiser, and the ordinary prudence of the counting-room was enough to restrain the editor's pen.

The other subject which New York city newspapers, as by one consent, never mention is the proposed reëlection of Senator Platt. Not one of them supports him. They have not sunk so low as that. Even his personal organ excludes him from its editorial page. But in no columns, except those of the *Evening Post*, is there any reference to his candidacy, any discussion of his fitness, any concern expressed over the impending disgrace of the State by having a decrepit corruptionist represent it in the Senate again. Why is this? It cannot be that Democratic papers have any political reason for staying their hand. If Republican editors have had any fear that they might offend their readers by attacking Platt, they must have seen from the letters which the *Evening Post* has been publishing that Platt is a stench in the nostrils of decent Republicans. They loathe him, and would gladly see him deposed. Why do they get no help from the *Tribune*, for example? Why is it absolutely silent to-day on a subject about which, in other days, it has been fiercely voluble?

We are not going to intimate unworthy motives in its case or any other; though any one in search of them would have to look no further than to Platt's open alliance with the great interests which are doing so much to "commercialize" both politics and the pen. We prefer to take the explanation commonly offered. Platt is invincible. He is "a bad lot," but it is impossible to defeat him. The people know perfectly well what a tyrannous boss and an unblushing corrupter of public life he has been, but, if they do not rise, why should we say anything? We should only make ourselves disagreeable, and accomplish nothing.

Well, all that we say is, if journalism is going to adopt such principles, it will surely fall from its high estate. If there is to be no sense of trusteeship for the public, the public will have to look elsewhere than to the press for a bulwark against fraud and corruption. Since when was it the first duty of a fearless newspaper to be "agreeable"? How can you help being disagreeable to plotters against the common weal? Sir Leslie Stephen says that the world owes much to those who have been bores in a good cause. And what has a newspaper to do with the question of "success" in putting down a rogue against whom it writes? Its duty is done when it tells the truth. In the case of Platt, we are all the while asked, "Do you really think you can beat him?" Frankly, that is a question we have never asked. We know that the honest citizens of the State would beat Platt if they had a chance, and we can only do our part to give them a chance. The expressions of indignation which they have sent to the *Evening Post* are proof enough that Platt is as poor a representative of the party as are those newspapers which sit silent while the base deed is done.

MORAL COERCION IN SETTLING STRIKES.

At the time of the great strike of the iron-workers in 1901, Mr. Charles Francis Adams made some suggestions for the avoidance of such troubles. They deserved more attention than was then paid them. Just now, at all events, every one is anxious to listen to plans having this end in view, provided the plans are rational and practical. Plans for "compulsory arbitration" do not fall into this category. No power exists capable of forcing an employer to pay wages that make his business unprofitable. No court can compel a laborer to work against his will. The labor-unions refuse to be incorporated, for the avowed reason that they do not propose to make themselves subject to legal process. Their employers, they say, can afford to go to law. *They* cannot; and they do not mean to throw away their legal immunity. Their position, whether reasonable or not, makes all talk of compulsory arbitration preposterous.

Mr. Adams's plan contemplates neither arbitration nor legal compulsion. Since he first suggested it, he has reflected on it and taken counsel, and laid it before the Civic Federation, together with the draft of a bill for its application. The plan is such as may be adopted by a State Government or by that of the nation; but the bill takes the form of an act of Congress. Hence it is necessary to limit the act to controversies affecting the mails or the general government, or interstate and foreign commerce. The most important strikes are of this kind. Stated briefly, the bill authorizes the President to investigate any controversy of this description. For that purpose he may appoint a commission not exceeding seven in number. The commission shall have powers in procuring evidence similar to those of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and the parties to the controversy may appear in person and by counsel. After investigation, the commission shall report the facts with recommendations for such action as shall, in their judgment, end the labor quarrel and prevent its recurrence.

The first question asked concerning such a measure will be, is it practical? The answer to this is, *solvitur ambulando*. The plan is now in operation. The commission investigating the coal strike is a commission such as Mr. Adams proposes, except that its powers are even more limited, and that no compensation was originally provided for its members. It cannot administer oaths or compel the production of papers; and, in our judgment, it is on this account all the better as a commission. Mr. Adams's reasoning tends to the same conclusion. It would be a better commission still if it had only three members. Perhaps it would be a counsel of perfection to say that the best commission would consist of a single member; yet we fancy that the public has forgotten that any one besides Judge Gray is now investigating the coal strike, and it will be his opinion that will be generally accepted. The most important law cases are heard by a single judge. In England a single judge can hang a man without appeal; yet few persons competent to form an opinion hold our administration of criminal justice to be better than the English.

When we come to answer the second question concerning the measure—Will it succeed?—we see that everything depends on the moral weight of the judgment of the Commissioners. The "sanction" in the case is public opinion. On this point Mr. Adams reasons with admirable force. His arguments are in line with the progress of civilization. They are illustrated by the growth of international law, by the constitution of the Tribunal of The Hague, by the increase in the amenities of social life, by the improvement in the vast field of morals which lies beyond the reach of legislation. We quote Mr. Adams on the point:

> "It is singular to note, when any controversy arises, how such a method of settlement as that here proposed is at once set aside, as being inadequate and unworthy of consideration because behind it there is no constable's club or soldier's bayonet. In fact, however, the word 'compulsion' has an unpleasant sound to Americans. In theory only is the thing popular. With us the final appeal must always be to reason; and public opinion enforces the edict of that appeal. In every field of legislation this has been again and again illustrated; and yet the appeal to reason, as now here made, is almost invariably contemptuously dismissed from consideration on the ground that there is behind it no force to compel obedience."

To command the support of public opinion—which, when well-informed and rational, exerts a pressure more irresistible than that of policemen or soldiers—everything must be done to increase the moral weight of the judgments of the proposed Commission. Hence every application of force is derogatory. Let the Commission ask, not command, the parties to produce their witnesses, or suffer public shame for their refusal. The very name *subpœna* is incongruous, and the fewer oaths men are compelled to take the better. Moreover, as moral force is relied on, the weight of the Commission would be augmented by whatever increased the disinterestedness of its members. It would be well if their services could be gratuitous. Whenever an office with liberal pay is created, the

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politicians seek for it as a pearl of great price. We venture to say that the judgments of a Commission such as Mr. Adams proposes, appointed by the Governor of Pennsylvania, would not be supported by public opinion. The same would be true in some other States, where the emoluments of office are the rewards of party. Furthermore, the judgments of the Commission will be more effective the sooner they are delivered. The great railroad strike of 1877 in Massachusetts occurred on February 12, and the Railroad Commission made a conclusive report on the 21st. For the Coal Strike Commission to waste time—we do not say it has yet done so—is to waste influence.

To place the appointment of an investigating commission in the hands of the President is to fall in with an unfortunate tendency to overload the Executive; but this may be unavoidable in the beginning. Later on, Congress and the Legislature may see their way to shouldering responsibility themselves. But the great thing is to have the matter thoroughly threshed out in public discussion. Mr. Adams has done well to put his plan in the form of a project of law. That should appeal to the practical instinct. And let it not be forgotten that an emergency may arise sooner than any of us think, to make his bill for settling labor troubles by the moral coercion of public investigation a crying necessity.

DR. TEMPLE AND CHANGES IN THE CHURCH.

The death of the Archbishop of Canterbury not only removes a venerable and right English figure, but recalls the extraordinary way in which the ecclesiastical wheel has come full circle during his lifetime. Forty-two years ago any man would have been thought insane who should have predicted that Frederick Temple, Headmaster of Rugby, would die a bishop, much less Primate of the English Church. It would have seemed as impossible for him as for his famous predecessor, equally suspect on theological grounds, Dr. Arnold. Mr. G. W. E. Russell had this old incredulity in mind when he wrote, at the time of Dr. Temple's enthronement at Canterbury, that the event "made clear to the most casual eye the enormous transformation which sixty years have wrought alike in the inner temper and the outward aspect of the Church of England."

It is difficult to understand to-day the alarm into which Church and State in England were thrown in 1860 by the publication of seven modest theological essays. The first name in the volume of 'Essays and Reviews' was that of Dr. Temple, who wrote on "The Education of the World" in a tone that perhaps suggested Lessing, but that reflects only what is the current coin of theological thought to-day. The two men most noted since, associated in the venture, were Jowett and Mark Pattison. They stood for what would be now thought the mildest of mild Liberalism in theology. At the time, however, they seemed to be shaking both altar and throne. Mighty protests went up to the Bishops from all over England, expressing alarm at the "spread of rationalistic and semi-infidel doctrines among the beneficed clergy of the realm." In reply the Archbishops and Bishops said that they could not see how such opinions as those put forward by the authors of 'Essays and Reviews' could be "held consistently with an honest subscription to the formularies of our church," and intimated an ecclesiastical prosecution. Among the Episcopal signers was Thirlwall, who was in print with views fully as heretical, as Stanley did not fail to point out in his indignant article in the *Edinburgh Review*, and Tait, who was at the very time writing privately to Jowett that he saw nothing to object to in either his essay or Temple's. Such is the malign power of ecclesiastical panic!

One reason for the unreasonable excitement was that such a demonstration of Liberalism at Oxford had been wholly unlooked-for. The University, which her well-known son called the "home of lost causes, and forsaken beliefs, and unpopular names, and impossible loyalties," was supposed to be securely tied to Conservatism. Yet there they were, only a score of years after the Tractarians, with Oxford seething with that Liberal spirit which Newman of Oriel and Pusey and Keble had pledged their all to beat down. Pattison once gave a half-cynical explanation of the transformation of Puseyite Oxford of 1840 into the Oxford of 'Essays and Reviews' in 1860. He said it was the natural attitude of the undergraduate to be in a state of chronic rebellion against his tutors. But the student himself became a don in about twenty years, so that you had a cycle of something like forty years for the University opinion in politics and religion to oscillate from one extreme to the other. Thus the Broad-Church latitudinarians of 1860 were the legitimate product of the High Church tractarians of 1840.

Two of the Oxford Essayists were put on trial, but the final judgment of the Privy Council acquitted them in 1864. Yet the whole controversy was fanned into fresh fury when Gladstone appointed Temple Bishop of Exeter, the official announcement being made in 1869. There was a determined opposition to his consecration. Dr. Pusey went so far as to assert that the choice of Temple was "the most frightful enormity that has ever been perpetrated by a Prime Minister." And when, on December 21, 1869, the new bishop was formally consecrated, a High Church paper declared, in that moderate language which theological controversy so often begets, that "on that darkest day in the whole year was perpetrated the darkest crime in the history of the English Church."

To turn from those old bitternesses to the spectacle of an entire church mourning at the bier of its venerated head, is a lesson in Christian tolerance, as well as in some other things. Dr. Temple never recanted; the church did not change its formularies; yet the process of the suns brought the two into harmony, and the heretic of 1860 became the guardian of orthodoxy in 1902. So far as we know, Dr. Temple published little or nothing, in later years, on controverted questions of theology. He was too much overwhelmed with his vast work as an ecclesiastical administrator. Pattison once said that the way to kill a clergyman's mind was to make him a bishop, since "no bishop, ten years after he was consecrated, is ever in touch with the intellectual spirit of his day." Jowett's reason for appointing heretics to bishoprics was that it "keeps 'em out of mischief." But in Temple's case, the polemic and speculative impulse seems to have yielded naturally to the business demands and humanitarian appeals which filled his nights and days, both as Bishop of London and as Primate of England, with heroic and fruitful labors for the good of men.

COUNTERFEIT PRESENTMENTS.

The authenticity of a "Gainsborough" portrait of Benjamin Franklin recently presented to the University of Pennsylvania is now under dispute, and the discussion has brought out the interesting fact that a picture in Lord Lansdowne's London collection, which has been engraved and widely circulated as a likeness of Franklin, is only a portrait of that rather obscure Georgian worthy, Surgeon-General Middleton, who would doubtless have had Poor Richard hanged as a seditious rogue. What has happened in the case of Franklin is very characteristic. Around every great historic character there come to be grouped, besides genuine portraits, many dubious counterfeit presentments—forgeries, ideal heads, and portraits of forgotten persons rashly ascribed to their greater contemporary; and where no genuine likeness has come down, imagination steps in and gives us the invention of some later artist for the actual features of the hero.

Where no authentic likeness has been preserved, one can hardly quarrel with this tendency to visualize a hero who has constantly held the thoughts and hearts of men. It would be futile to protest against the Chinese and Japanese Buddha, for example; idle to seek in the Roman, Byzantine, and mediæval portraiture of Christ anything but the reverent imagining of the Redeemer in the forms

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of successive ages. But where genuine portraits exist, the intrusion and acceptance of false likenesses are a positive misfortune. It is seldom that tradition gives so consistent and satisfactory lineaments as it does in the case of Dante, of whom there is no surely contemporary portrait. Often, indeed, there seems to be a kind of pictorial Gresham's Law at work, by which the worse likeness drives out the better. This is certainly the case with Shakspere. The pouular voice has selected as his best representation the so-called Chandos portrait. This picture, all experts agree, was painted some time after Shakspere's death; it is probably an honest delineation, not of an Englishman even, but of "a distinguished foreigner," yet it has, except for the critical, supplanted the hideous Droeshout print, as well as more attractive portraits with a better claim to genuineness.

How such a confusion arises may readily be imagined. The beginning of trouble is the credulous collector who buys an anonymous portrait because it "looks like," say, Milton, or Shakspere, or Cromwell, and gradually passes from hope to conviction on the subject. One may feel a certain tenderness for so amiable an infirmity, but the imputed likeness makes as much trouble for historians as the innocent "attributed to" does for art critics. Another source of error is the historical painter and the creator of imaginary portraits. Both may do a genuine service in expressing an historical memory in terms of flesh and blood, but both do harm when the fictitious likeness obscures any real image of the man.

Strangely enough, this very interesting branch of historical research has lagged behind. The illustrative material of history is handled in a way that, applied to documents, would be cried upon as a scandal. There is, to be sure, a tendency to exclude merely fanciful pictures from serious history, but excellent work is still published in which the absurd illustrations constantly belie the text. That gallery of Kings of Scotland from Macbeth and earlier, which some sixteenth-century dauber imagined for Holyrood Palace, still appear, on occasion, just as William the Conqueror is still acceptably represented by Virtue's eighteenth-century print. What should be a fascinating avocation for a historian has in the past been turned over to publishers' hacks, and the result has been that, while we may have read the past aright, we have unquestionably seen it wrong.

It will be no mean service of the newer and more comprehensive science of archæology if it provides us with a few experts on historical portraiture. The material already is offered in such institutions as the National Portrait Gallery in London and in our historical associations. To-day this branch lies largely in abeyance because few historians have the temperament for the minute analysis upon which this sort of connoisseurship depends, while, except in a few instances, the whole body of limners of historical personages belong to the artistic submerged tenth; hence do not concern the student of art. What we need, in order to keep our vision of Franklin and Shakspere free from surgeons-general and "distinguished foreigners" is a class of experts who will have, on the one hand, something of the connoisseur's delicacy of perception, on the other the laborious and critical habit of the regular historian. For the many students of history who feel that everything worth while has been done, here is a new and interesting field to be rescued from amateurism and conquered for historical science.

THE UNITED IRISH LEAGUE.

DUBLIN, December 13, 1902.

So much has been said of late of the United Irish League—in praise, chiefly in dispraise—that it may be opportune to present in your columns "an Irish-majority" view of that organization. The Land League and Home-Rule phase of Irish politics appeared to have spent itself after the defeat of the Home-Rule Bill by the Lords in 1893 and Mr. Gladstone's retirement from public life. The acclaims of the crowds with which the Lords' decision was hailed in Palace Yard were not answered by counter cheers of defiance, determination, and hope in Ireland. The broken expectations of half a century, the overstrain of thirteen years' acute agitation tending to paralyze the ordinary life of the country, and the bitter antagonisms between Mr. Parnell's former followers, appeared to have taken the political backbone out of Ireland. And this, so different from what England believed would have been her own attitude after the defeat of a measure as ardently desired as was Home Rule by Ireland, no doubt largely contributed to break up the Liberal party and bring the Conservatives back into power. For a while longer the fight was kept up in Ireland, with dwindling support, by Mr. Dillon and three-fourths of the Irish members under the banner of the National Federation, and by Mr. Redmond and the minority under the National League; the efforts of the majority being distracted and hampered by the machinations of some of the ablest of its nominal members, who have since made it plain that they were in reality sick of further contest for effectual reform, and were only anxious to secure such changes as were compatible with following their usual avocations and no longer shutting themselves out from a share of the loaves and fishes of Government patronage. Many who, fifty years previously, had shared O'Connell's hopes, and, after their collapse and his death, had seen Conciliation Hall turned into a corn store and the Library and Collections of the Repeal Association dispersed under the auctioneer's hammer, were now condemned to the humiliation of witnessing the closure of the offices of the National Federation and the National League. Once more, as in Duffy's time, Ireland appeared but "a corpse on a dissecting table." "Never again put trust in a fickle people," was the cry of many who had hoped and striven and sacrificed, and who, nevertheless, again have gathered courage for further effort.

Through and after all, much had been gained. Twenty per cent. reduction had been secured on the rents of Ireland. Thousands of former tenants at will had been put in the way of becoming proprietors of their holdings. "A nation of serfs had been turned into a nation of freemen." The uprising of the Land League had been so formidable that Government and the ascendancy element in Ireland had been forced, as never before, to realize that there was an Irish people to be counted with. Railways were made in remote districts, a Congested Districts Board and a Department of Agriculture were created; and, half a century after its necessity had been fully admitted, a system of county government was established—cramped, it is true, compared to its English prototype as to many of its powers. A greater interest than ever before began to be shown by the upper and middle classes in the welfare of the people. Workhouse and philanthropic reform associations, police-aided clothing and children's protective societies were established. The admission of women as guardians of the poor exercised a beneficial influence on the management of the poor-houses. The complete success of Mr. Gladstone's measure of disestablishment was shown in the dying down of religious animosities, and we had what formerly would have been an anachronism in Ireland—the principal conservative organ (the *Irish Times*) also the mouthpiece of the upper-class Catholics. But the doors were still closed against further land reform; even Mr. T. W. Russell advised the farmers of the north to bid good-bye for the present to hope, and make the best of their state.

It is, however, true of peoples as of individuals, that every "heart knoweth its own bitterness." It was impossible that Ireland could long remain satisfied under present conditions. Depopulation continued. Marshy wastes and stony mountain sides continued crowded with a miserable rack-rented population, while contiguous rich lands, from which their fathers had been driven in famine years, were still given over to cattle ranches and sheep farms. Vital statistics proved that the fibre of the nation was deteriorating. The benefits of recent land legislation could be obtained only through expensive legal procedure, too often only after risky and protracted litigation. The class feeling of the judges in Ireland led to many of the most beneficial provisions of the Land Acts being narrowed in their application. The Sales Court was overburdened with estates held back from disposal by the presiding judge so as not to "bear" the property of his friends the landlords. The Land Courts were upon the whole, by even so ardent a Unionist as Mr. T. W. Russell, stigmatized as "an Augean stable." The laborers had, it is true, benefited by a rise in wages, but the reduction in rents had not made up to the farmers for the fall in prices of agricultural produce. A Government commission instituted to inquire into the financial relations of the countries reported that Ireland was overtaxed to at least £2,500,000 per annum, and although this sum could easily have

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been made up to Ireland in other ways than by altering the uniformity of taxation over the United Kingdom, Government made a jest of the report. Not the slightest hope was held out of the old system of Castle government being altered.

Under all these circumstances, it was inevitable that some organized effort should again be made to crystallize Irish feeling, express it in Parliament, and compel attention to Irish wants. For the hundredth time an opportunity was let pass by the "better" and upper classes of society in Ireland to take their natural place as leaders of the people, and show that while they were not prepared to go the length of home rule, they were determined their country's affairs should not be neglected in the Imperial Parliament. But, as ever since the Union, which put them above and beyond the influences of the opinion of the mass of their fellow-countrymen, they held aloof, satisfied in the circles of their own lives. In minor respects they could feel for their fellow-countrymen. To broad requirements they were blind. If the Irish people were not satisfied with general conditions, it was due to their hopeless crassness. If Belfast was satisfied, why should not the rest of Ireland be so? The extent to which Irish society is permeated and influenced by official classes in no way dependent upon the good will of those about them for pay or advancement, is largely explanatory of this state of feeling. If outsiders are inclined to take the opinion of the classes in Ireland that all is well, that agitation is but the outcome of the machinations of interested politicians, they should remember that all previous periods of unrest, culminating in the accomplishment of reforms since acknowledged to be necessary and salutary, have been regarded in like spirit.

The masses and those who sympathized with them had to go forward as best they could. Common sympathy for the Boers, due to whatever cause, had something to do with bringing Irish nationalist parties again together. The election of 1900 found the United Irish League, commenced in the west, fully established in central offices in Dublin, and represented in Parliament by a united party as strong in numbers as that led by Mr. Parnell. The capacity of Irishmen for compromise was shown in the chairman of the Parnellite (the smaller) section being chosen as chairman of the whole, and by the manner in which, since, Mr. Dillon, chairman of the former majority, and his ablest lieutenants, Mr. O'Brien, Mr. Blake, and others, have loyally served under their old antagonist. And this chairman, Mr. Redmond, has fully justified the confidence placed in him. Since then the League has flourished. There are said to be 1,400 branches in Ireland, besides many in Great Britain. If we may judge from accounts published in the papers, one way or another during and since the election of 1900 some £40,000 has been contributed by the Irish in the United Kingdom to its funds, now three in number—one for the expenses of the League itself, one for the support of members in Parliament, another for legal defence.

The League has in a remarkable manner aroused public opinion. Again Ireland is a factor in Parliament. It is due to the League that a Land Bill was introduced by Government last session, that it was withdrawn as inefficient, that a better one is promised. Owing to the League a conference between representatives of the landlords and the tenants is about to take place. The League is a grim necessity. There is not much "sweetness" or "light" about it, although there are few higher-minded men living than many connected with it. But these largely want the support and influence of classes which in Great Britain have helped to steady and dignify politics. The League has to work too often through imperfect instruments. Those who join must subject themselves to the suspicion of approving wild language too common at meetings, and a fictitious atmosphere of connection with crime is spread around its doings, from which political movements of like vehemence in self-governing countries would be free. Language and acts are held as criminal over Ireland which from Orangemen in the north or any party in Great Britain would pass unnoticed; and a microscopical eye is directed to Irish doings. Police notetakers attend all outdoor political gatherings—and most gatherings in Ireland are outdoor; the people are not permitted to use for political purposes the courthouses and other buildings built and maintained at their expense. Trial by jury is dispensed with wherever and whenever the Government desires. Men are tried by Magistrates sent down from the Castle and removable by the Castle; and where it is thought well to submit cases to juries, these are "packed." In a recent instance not only was a special jury secured by Government to try a case, but the jurors were specially selected from a large panel; forty-five being ordered to "stand aside." Apart from the chances of supposed connection with or approval of crime, the dangers of financial ruin are, under recent decisions of the courts, not inconsiderable. Members have, however, the satisfaction of knowing that never perhaps before was Ireland freer from real crime.

Under all the circumstances, however, it requires nerve, a clear sense of right, an overwhelming conception of the political necessities of the country, for quiet people, who would gladly live in good esteem with all men, to take the popular side in Irish politics. For a Protestant it is peculiarly difficult. He must work mainly in conjunction with Catholics, with most of whom, on other than political issues, he cannot have much in common. He is ostracized from much that is sweet in society. He has, however, the consciousness of working with men many of whom he learns to love—men who, while holding firm to their own religious convictions, he realizes are no more desirous of interfering with his beliefs than he is with theirs. He knows he is striving for a people of as innate capacity for advancement and high things as any other—no more prone than other peoples to forget those who have served them or to bear lasting grudges.

It is beside the subject which this letter was written to elucidate, but it is difficult not to note the bearing which recent doings in Parliament may have on the terms of an Irish settlement. If Catholic feeling has been so powerful as to compel the Irish members to take their recent part in Parliament on behalf of Catholics in England, would it permit them to relinquish their continued right of interference in English affairs? And to what extent will English Nonconformists, smarting under the Irish Catholic opposition in Parliament on the education question, be inclined to modify their views as to relinquishing their right of interference in Irish affairs on behalf, it might be, of their co-religionists?

D. B.

AMERICAN WARES IN ITALY.

NAPLES, December 10, 1902.

With the other readers of your columns, I have long enjoyed the letters from time to time written upon the literary and archæological and political conditions of Italy. May I be permitted to call your attention to several points that may be instructive to thinkers upon the commercial future of the United States abroad?

About two years ago I decided to obtain the Italian representation of several large American woodenware manufacturers. This intention sprang from a desire to encounter the ubiquitous German competitor fair in the face, with a firm resolve to find out why Americans could not share, or, at least, hitherto had not been able to share, proportionately in this importation into South European markets. Previous diligent perusal of our consular reports and "Commercial Relations" in Europe had led me to the belief that I had hit upon a fresh field for effort of this kind. Nor was I mistaken. Upon my arrival, somewhat over a year ago, I found that I was the only direct Italian representative of American woodenware in Italy. My equipment for the enterprise consisted in a tolerable speaking knowledge of the language, and in an acquaintance with the ways of the people as well as with their wants gained from a previous sojourn in Naples.

My desire was to sell large orders to wholesalers and to jobbers in the principal business centres of Italy; said orders to be filled direct from the United States. My first surprise came from the discovery that to all intents and purposes the wholesaler did not exist. Something remotely approaching his kind flourished in such cities of the north as Milan. Effort had, therefore, to be turned in the direction of the nearest Italian analogues to the American jobber—namely, the vast tribe of *rappresentanti*. The fact that merchants of every sort refused to consider catalogues in any language other than Italian confirmed the oft expressed, though seldom regarded, warning invariably found scattered throughout consular literature. Even if illustrated, they elicited no interest. At his office in Turin, one important *rappresentante* had a mound of catalogues of divers American hardware manufactures. He begged me to buy for him in New York certain kinds of hardware, full descriptions and illustrations of which for months had been stacked on a neighboring table. Furthermore, he had been provoked by the visit, some weeks before my talk with him, of an English hardware agent who spoke no Italian and unintelligible French.

However, these were trifling difficulties in my path, because I had brought with me illustrated circulars printed in Italian. These gave prices in *lire*, and easy terms of payment that conformed to those readily granted by the Germans with whom I hoped to compete. The serious stumbling-

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block that now confronted me was the matter of delivery. Buying in small lots as Italians do, the prices of all the goods were unnaturally though necessarily elevated by reason of the extra cost of freighting in small amounts. Besides this, there was to be met the objection of my prospective Italian buyer in regard to the speed of delivery. Granted that our own were superior in quality to the German goods, the German stood ready to deliver from his bonded stock in less than a week any order great or small. For inland delivery I, on my part, could not promise anything in less time than two months at soonest. And the house whose ice-cream freezers I represented for Italy, wrote me in a disconcerting manner that the factory was so far behind on domestic orders that they could promise me nothing more than samples until some time in 1903.

In order to do business to advantage, it was evidently necessary to have a good-sized stock of all the manufactures represented stored at either Genoa or Naples, or at both these ports. Domestic prosperity had made Americans in general quite loth to put themselves to any risk or expense (of warehousing and so on) for the sake of an export market. Effort on their part could not be enlisted farther East than New York or Boston. Certain large commission houses with offices at New York, London, and in Germany bought in America orders of considerable amount, carried them to Germany, and thence dispersed their contents in small lots over Italy. In order to lessen the expense for each of my houses, I proposed that each should contribute enough to pay for the storage of a common stock to be placed in bond at Naples. The suggestion was quite fair, as there were no competing goods to be put together. The idea was discountenanced as hazardous; and a proposition to set up an American hardware and woodenware store where goods could be sold at both wholesale and retail, met with refusal. And this was notwithstanding the fact that the best local advice indicated that an undertaking of this kind could easily have been begun with a small initial outlay, and that it would have proved to be a profitable novelty, likely to sell the goods at rates below those offered by *rappresentanti* whose per cent. of profit, plus that of the people through whose various hands the goods had already passed, would be clearly saved by the complete elimination of middlemen.

It took no extensive research to show why the Germans who were in Southern Italy were introducing woodenware and hardware with practically no competition from without. The reasons for this situation are few and simple. With their proverbial insight, the Germans approached the question of export trade with the philosophy that has won them so high a position in purely intellectual realms. In Italy they have overcome opposition both by accident and by design. As the whole world knows, for some years, Germany has been in the throes of an industrial crisis. To avert disaster and possible outbreaks among the hordes that constitute the operative class, it has been found expedient to keep the factories productive at any risk short of actual loss. As a result of the domestic market being overstocked, goods are turned out and sold to the export trade at the merest trifle above actual cost of production. How has an outside demand been built up? For one thing, the consular service attained its present highly efficient development by reason of the need of a continual outlet for German products. Each consulate is obliged to turn into the chief bureau at Berlin (the statistics of which are always accessible to German manufacturers) accurate reports and tables. The former describe the general market conditions of the consular district in question, and state what products can be imported at a profit from Germany (and, also, exported to Germany). The tables present detailed information as to the means of access and the cost thereof. They also give the local *octroi* (where such exists), as well as the cost of delivery of goods to the market; and, finally, prevailing quotations on those lines that may be of interest to the prospective German exporter.

The German manufacturer consults the statistics that are ever at his disposal, and sends one or more representatives into the district he proposes to invade, armed with a copious supply of samples for distribution, and power to make the best terms possible. The representative will ask the local buyers what they are willing to pay for certain articles; and he can usually agree to deliver any desired order on terms of ninety days or more, or with a small per cent discount, for cash in thirty days. These articles once introduced, a stock is afterwards kept so that at short notice orders can be refilled. So scrupulously painstaking are the Germans that no conciliatory effort is omitted to urge their wares upon the export market. For example, I saw the other day some German wall-paper that, on the back, had a legend printed in six languages informing one of its washable qualities. More than this, in order to draw the eye to the words themselves, there was a large and strikingly quaint design of gnomes wandering over the surface between the print. This insistent fondness for pandering to the fancy of any one who may become a buyer, is further illustrated by a still more classic example. It is well known that at one time England and Germany were competitors in selling sewing needles in the Chinese market. The English needles were sold in the customary black wrappers. An ancient superstitious dread of black shifted the Chinese needle trade to the Germans, who presented their inferior product wrapped in red paper of good omen. British conservatism or stolid indifference to pampering such whims as this (which proved, at least in this one case, a matter of crucial importance) cost dear. English and American manufacturers have very much the following attitude toward foreign buyers: "If you are not satisfied with what I have to sell, better go elsewhere." And elsewhere they often go. This independent and dictatorial manner is of small moment in times of vast domestic demand for home manufactures, but it never makes for commercial expansion, since the successful competitor abroad finds pliancy in its widest sense the most imperative consideration.

Meanwhile, the American manufacturer has probably not done more than to sell orders at New York to Germans who resell at a profit, which might be saved by employing a representative equipped with a knowledge of Italian, abundant samples, power to give long credits where it would be safe to do so, and illustrated circulars in Italian. Or, perhaps, he has opened an agency (with a small stock) in London. In this case, at least two profits unnecessarily intervene between American manufacturer and Italian consumer. At most, let us say, he has sent a representative over to Italy to look after his interests. But this unfortunate has his hands tied. He is obliged to submit to the indignity of having a successful German rival step in under his nose and take the market out of his hands because his power is limited. He cannot extend credits. He must await advices from headquarters about trifling details to which he could better attend on the ground. His superiors are naturally annoyed at the pettiness of questions they cannot understandingly answer, questions upon the instantaneous reply to which may depend important orders; and with which, once and for all, the representative should have been authorized to deal.

From the above strictures upon American obtuseness in matters of export, the managers of the Singer sewing machine, the Remington typewriter, and the National cash register are exempt. Their successful introduction is national. From Palermo to Turin their progress has been rapid far beyond that of any other American manufactures. How was this brought about? Superiority of the article itself, compliance with all the demands made by the Italian consumer that are met by the Germans, and, lastly, by extensive advertising. It is probably not too much to say that Italians advertise as much in proportion to the amount of capital invested as we do at home. These three machines are everywhere advertised in journals and by posters. A few Americans, very few as yet, have followed this encouraging example.

A carefully planned and logically conducted assault on the present German supremacy in woodenware and hardware, for example, would make a comparatively important place for America in southern Italy. The attack must be carried on along the lines followed by those now holding the field, or in another way that could hardly fail of a sudden success. So little Neapolitan capital is invested in industries of any sort that a large American department store at Naples, in which nothing could be bought that was not of American origin, would succeed from the hour of its inception. There should be a direct delivery of goods from the American manufactory to the store at the lowest export rates. This plan would obviate the various middle profits that at present are holding us back in this region where "English" and "American" are in themselves advertisements of no little value. This saving would be so considerable that the Germans could be met victoriously with goods superior to their own, at as low or lower prices than those at which they now find themselves practically without competition. A store such as I have in mind, such as several times has been suggested to me by people cognizant of the possibilities here for American enterprise properly directed, ought to include a varied assortment of commodities. For instance, there need be no clash in an "emporium" of this kind between dry goods and optical goods, between shoes and woodenware, between groceries and drugs,

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provided that no conflict of interests should be permitted to occur, and that each department be by itself in charge of a responsible director. Shop rents in choice situations are low beyond belief. Before many months the establishment could count on a much larger *clientèle* than that of tourists, resident English, and modernized Neapolitans. Its sales would extend outside of Naples into central and northern Italy.

RAPPRESENTANTE.

Correspondence.

CHANNING'S VERSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Noticing in a recent issue of your journal the citation, from Channing's 'Poems of Sixty-Five Years,' of that impressive meditation of his entitled "To-morrow," it has occurred to me to send you the first form of it, as he sent it in a letter to Emerson from New York, where, at the age of twenty-six, he was aiding Horace Greeley in editing the *Tribune*. In copying the verses for publication from the printed volume of 1847, it escaped my notice that I had them in a fuller form, but with variations, in this letter. It came back to Channing, with other letters to Emerson, after 1882, and was left to me with the mass of his manuscripts at his own death a year ago. He gave the poem no title, and omitted three lines in printing it. The thought, though profound, is obscure, like much that poets have to say about that mysterious entity, Time—"the wild Time," as Emerson says.

F. B. SANBORN.

CONCORD, MASS., December 23, 1902.

NEW YORK, Feb. 9, 1845.

MY DEAR FRIEND:

I got and was glad to get your letter to-night. I thought, not that you had forgotten me, but that you had forgot to write. It is dated Feb. 1, and is a nine days' wonder.

I have nothing to say; it is for this reason that I write. Had I anything to communicate I should be perfectly silent. Not only have I nothing to say, but I cannot imagine how any one ever had. At remote distances from where I am, some faint possibilities of life in a shaded background seem to arise.

Fled, O fled forever! are you, early and mysterious lights, that around the initials of existence once in rosy beauty played: gone, gone, there where all things fine and fair fleetly go!

Thus, O thou man of marble security! do *I* write, the child of impulse, the creature of imagination, and the ghost of the past. Thou, cased in triple steel, needest not confessions, desirest not sympathies. It is better where thou standest than where I conflict with the shadows ruuning swiftly over the wide, bare, deserted and misty plain—its only music the very distant, sullen dashing of some sea bitter in its waves, or now the dull sough of a weary wind that here has come to die in the long strands of sere grasses.

W. E. C.

I send you, you patron of the poor! the only verses I have written this winter.

TO MY WIFE.

And thou, who art the life of this world's light,
Fair flower that sweet suns nurtured into bloom!
From thee I urge no more the weary flight,
Thy image kindly sits within the room,
And softly smiling bans the veiled doom.

. . . . . .

To-morrow comes, alas! my friend, to-morrow—
There down below the pines the sunset flings,
Long arching o'er, its lines of ruddy light,
And the wind whispers little harmonies,
And underneath their wings the tender birds
Droop the averted head—silent their songs.
Yet not a word whispers the moaning wind,
Nor when the primal stars, in faint array,
Trail with the banners of the unfurled night;
Nor even when the low-hung moon just glints,
And faintly with few touches seres the wood.
Not then, nor there, doth Nature idly say,
Nor whisper idly of another day:
That other morn to its own morrow is,
That other day shall see no shade of this—
Being forever morrow where the hand
Omnipotent the shadow parts, and time,
Circling in gayest measure, rounds the print.

A "STRENUOUS" KING OF ENGLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

In these days of a "strenuous" President, it is interesting to note the "strenuous" King of England who first gained that title. Bishop Stubbs, in his 'Introductions to the Rolls Series,' recently reprinted, says that King Richard

"had the rare prerogative of true genius, to be able to see the best plan of operations [in war] to be the best, even when it did not proceed from his own brain. He was circumspect to design and swift in execution, ready to seek and to take the best advice, to yield his own schemes and accept a *subordinate position when the decision* of the majority was against him. Skilful as he was in the designing and earnest in the execution of military combinations, he was the veriest tyro in politics."

Bishop Stubbs cites in his notes Bohadin, who says of him: "The King of England—strenuous before all," and Giraldus, "Strenuitas et magnitudo fere pars"; Gervase of Tilbury, "In strenuitate, magnanimitate, militia, scientia, et omnis generis virtutibus nulli secundus"; Chronicle of Tours, "Vir *armis strenuissimus et a populo honoratus.*"

At another place (p. 314), Bishop Stubbs says of him: "His eloquence, such as it was, may have come to him with his troubadour tastes from his mother, and his indomitable pride, and his carelessness of expressing his contempt for those he felt beneath him in strength or fame." And at page 321, "His political alliances were formed on the merest grounds of likes and dislikes; he was eloquent after a rude and effective fashion, consciously unfit to govern men—he did his best to choose good ministers—and utter want of political common sense prevented him from being a good ruler."

In these days of historic parallels, it might be suggested that Richard the Lion-hearted, as described by Bishop Stubbs and the early authorities quoted by him, was in some sort the prototype of our own strenuous President. At all events, it is curious and interesting to find such a picture in the grave and well-weighed pages of so good an historian as Bishop Stubbs, of the great English King, with some features so like those of the modern President.

R.

"MALAHACK" ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Volume 73 of your esteemed weekly a great deal of discussion is to be found on the word "malahack" (see pp. 148, 205, 245, 264, 377, 413), but none of your correspondents had found it in a dictionary or traced its origin. I met the word by chance in John S. Farmer's Dictionary, 'Americanisms, Old and New: A Dictionary of Words, Phrases, and Colloquialisms Peculiar to the United States, British America, the West Indies' (London, 1889). At page 356 "malahack" is explained thus: "To cut up hastily or awkwardly. This is an *English* provincialism, which, however, is colloquial in America." But more is said in the fourth volume of the famous Oxford work of Prof. Joseph Wright, 'The English Dialect Dictionary' (1902): "*Malahack*, verbum, East Anglia. (1) To cut or carve in a slovenly, awkward way. Cf. *molly-hawk*. Norfolk, Suffolk. (2) Of a horse or donkey: to become disabled or worn out by hard work. East Suffolk." Under "*Molly-hawk*," p. 148, occurs the entry: "Norfolk. A heavy double-toothed mattock."

"Malahack," therefore, is in every-day use in Norfolk and Suffolk, and appears not to be found outside "East Anglia." As your correspondents from Maine to Virginia prove, it is also common especially in the districts peopled by early emigrants from "East Anglia." No doubt, the word came from there to America, not *vice versa*. Whether the etymology from *mal* (French) and *hack* (English), "to hack badly," as mentioned somewhere, is correct, I cannot decide.

The word *mallack* mentioned by one of your correspondents (p. 377) is, according to Wright's Dictionary (vol. iv., p. 40), one of the many forms of the word *marlock*, which means, as substantive: "a prank, frolic, 'lark'; a trick, practical joke; a noisy disturbance, an uproar, 'row'; an unfortunate accident; one who plays pranks, a fool"; as verb: "to play; of a horse: to be restive, kick," etc. Other forms of the word *marlock* are "*maalack, mailack, mailock, mairlock, malech, malek, marlak, marluk, morlock*," etc.

I may mention that I have not found the word "malahack" in slang dictionaries such as James Maitland's (1891) or Albert Barrère and Charles G. Leland's (1897).

Yours truly, A. B. MEYER.

DRESDEN, ROYAL MUSEUM, December 14, 1902.

Notes.

The Arthur H. Clark Co., Cleveland, O., announce in a limited edition an important historical series entitled 'The Philippine Islands, 1493-1803: Explorations by Early Navigators, descriptions of the Islands and their Peoples, their History, and Records of the Catholic Missions, as related in contemporaneous books and manuscripts, showing the political, economic, commercial, and religious conditions of those Islands from their earliest relations with European Nations to the beginning of the nineteenth century,' in fifty-five volumes, the first of which will appear about January 15, 1903. This work will present (mainly in English translations) the most important printed works, to the year 1803, including a great number of heretofore unpublished MSS., which have been gathered from various foreign archives and libraries, principally from Spain, Portugal, France, England, Italy, Mexico, Japan, the Philippines, etc. The series will be edited and annotated by Miss Emma Helen Blair, A.M., of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin, assistant editor of 'The Jesuit Relations and Allied Documents,' and James Alexander Robertson, Ph.B., also formerly engaged upon that work. An historical introduction and notes will be furnished by Prof. Edward Gaylord Bourne of Yale. The series will include a very extensive bibliography of "Philippina," surpassing any that has yet appeared. There will also be an exhaustive analytical index to the complete series, and numerous facsimile illustrations, maps, etc. One thousand numbered sets is the limit of the edition.

The handsome typography of Charles Lamb's 'Adventures of Ulysses,' brought out for the holidays by R. H. Russell, is its chief recommendation as a reprint of a classic. Full-page tinted illustrations, by M. H.

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Squire and E. Mars, it does not lack, but of hardly any of these can it be said that they are real designs, or more than decoration. They make the story a picture-book for the young, and these at least will seek no further.

The same publisher hands us a small folio in humorous vein, 'A Dog-Day,' the diary by Walter Emanuel, the chalk and crayon plates by Cecil Aldin—from the French. Old folks can enjoy it once; babes will return to it as often as the mother makes up a text of her own for this dog's adventures.

The story of St. George and the Dragon, in Burne-Jones's designs and an old English ballad, has been attractively presented by Mr. Russell on a scroll that might, if need be, be tacked to a wall, though it is on rollers. The scenes are rather faintly reproduced, as if at second or third hand.

Messrs. Dent's 'Don Quixote,' pretty in all externals as Dent books always are, is intended for unfortunate youth—unfortunate as not being thought worthy of a complete edition. We can do very fairly without "The Curious Impertinent," and even with an abridgment of the "Story of the Captive," but to cut out the disquisitions on knight-errantry, the classics, the drama, and so on, because they are supposed not to interest "youth," should be criminal, and is stupid. Then, to praise the book thus transmogrified for "its healthy fun and frolic" is most precisely to add insult to injury. The text is the always readable vulgate of Jarvis, and the illustrations are by W. H. Robinson. As to these, we should have rejoiced more over the old set of Tony Johannot.

It is hard to imagine to what wealth of language and prodigality of capitals FitzGerald would have been moved had he reached Mr. C. H. A. Bjerregaard's 'Sufi Interpretation of the Quatrains of Omar Khayyam and FitzGerald' (J. F. Taylor & Co.). The position of the commentator seems to be that, in some mysterious way, not only Omar but FitzGerald wrote Sufism without knowing it, like M. Jourdain and his prose. This inner meaning is now extracted in a most sumptuously printed but undeniably dull exposition, the principal value of which is that it illustrates so beautifully how sane men could once believe in the double meaning of Scripture. As to Omar, most are agreed that he was no Sufi, but a philosophical sceptic, who sought refuge from time to time in a theological "perhaps." And as to FitzGerald, Sufism in Omar was his pet bogy. He even, it may be, made Omar more of an unbeliever than he was. Mr. Bjerregaard and all good occidental Sufis have now their revenge by making FitzGerald one of themselves *malgré lui*. But if a man does not himself know what he is writing, and his word cannot stand for the faith that is in him, where—with permission—"are we at"? On the side of scholarship, this book, in spite of protests, raises grave doubts as to Mr. Bjerregaard's first-hand knowledge of Sufism. Certainly no one who had such knowledge would class together al-Ghazzali and Jalal ad-Din ar-Rumi. As well confuse Hegelians of the right and of the left.

The 'Cambridge Bible for Schools and Colleges' would not ordinarily find notice here, but a new commentary on the 'Song of Songs' is of some even literary importance. Principal Andrew Harper has in this case (Cambridge, Eng., University Press; New York: Macmillan) produced a really suggestive little book, although it is improbable that his view as a whole will meet with much support. It is practically Ewald's hypothesis cast into lyric rather than dramatic form. In its defence is suggested the parallel of such dramatic lyrics in varying metre as make up Browning's 'James Lee's Wife' and 'In a Gondola.' This is undoubtedly valid so far as the separate songs or soliloquies are concerned. Browning's dramatic lyric is the nearest parallel we have to the very essence of all Semitic poetry. But the combined whole cannot thus be explained; Semitic poetry knows no such elaborate structure. Throughout, Principal Harper vainly kicks against the pricks of Budde's hypothesis, and finally exhausts his ingenuity on it in a twenty-page appendix. The fixed use of the Authorized Version as text in this series is here reduced to an absurdity by the printing of a new translation separately.

The long series of the Dent-Lippincott charming little volumes, "The Temple Bible," has now been closed by an 'Introduction to the Study of the Scriptures,' by the Bishop of Ripon. As the volumes have separate editors, their general merit of course varies, but the plan of literary introduction, clearly arranged text, simple notes, and lists of references in English literature is admirable, and has inspired to lucidity some most learned theologians. As we cease to read the Bible in one way, we may perhaps, by grace (partly) of books like this, come to read it in another. That the other way shall still be essentially religious is the care of the Bishop of Ripon's little introduction. It, too, is simple, direct, and telling.

Mr. J. N. Larned's 'Literature of American History,' noticed in our last volume, made a few incursions into 1900 and 1901, but its 4,145 numbers were otherwise retrospective up to the last year of the last century. The work is now continued for 1900-01 in a thin 'Supplement' of less than forty pages (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) "on lines laid down by the parent volume," and yet with a difference. Mr. Philip P. Wells of Yale appears as editor in charge, and his all but uniform practice is to cite, often freely and again condensing, some authoritative review, giving the writer's name where it is known. Very serviceably, also, mention is occasionally made of controversy over the work in question, as in the case of Prof. E. G. Bourne's 'Essays in Historical Criticism' or of the Durham Report. The numbering is continuous with the elder volume, and the concluding title is No. 4333. On the whole, this seems to us a safer mode of procedure than that of express and first-hand collaboration in appreciation. The longer extracts not infrequently convey a satisfactory impression of the weight of judgment even when anonymous.

We are glad to receive the sixth edition of Clegg's useful little 'International Directory of Booksellers and Bibliophile's Manual; including Lists of the Public Libraries of the World, Publishers, Book Collectors, Learned Societies, and Institutions, Universities, and Colleges; also, Bibliographies of Book and Library Catalogues, Concordances, Bookplates, etc., etc.' (Rochdale, Eng.: James Clegg; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.). It is three years since the fifth edition appeared. No material change has been made in the scheme, and the editor still strives to keep the work of a handy size. The title does not exhaust the variety of information here packed conveniently away.

With volume iii. is concluded the 'History of Enfield, Conn.,' edited and published by Francis Olcott Allen at Lancaster, Pa. This remarkable work embodies in permanent form all that pertains to the planting and growth of a Connecticut town. Careful explanatory notes add much to the value of the record. Volumes of history might be evolved from the lists of soldiers sent out from Enfield to the several colonial wars, with specific detail of the object of each expedition, and in some instances of its result. Other phases of colonial life are clearly brought out and illustrated. The records of death and graveyard inscriptions are conspicuously minute and indigenous. Enfield may well take pride in this exhaustively comprehensive history, testifying as it does to the love and loyalty of a descendant of one of its early settlers—Moses Allen—the ancestor also of the Revs. Thomas and William Allen, Gen. Ethan Allen, and many other worthies.

In a little volume entitled 'Hugh Price Hughes as We Knew Him' (London: Horace Marshall & Son) are collected several interesting reminiscences of a distinguished English Nonconformist minister, whose recent death is described by one of the contributors, the Dean of Westminster, as a loss to "the cause of national righteousness." These brief papers are a remarkable evidence of the impression made by Mr. Hughes upon his fellow-workers in the various fields of church work, social reform, and journalism. All his associates speak with amazement of his untiring energy. One of his volumes of sermons, for example, for which a publisher had long been clamoring, was dictated to his private secretary in two days. Even more significant was his disinterestedness. He refused to take from the West London Mission a salary of more than $1,500 a year, with the use of a furnished house; and during the last year of his life, having received a small legacy, he returned the whole of his stipend to the mission, and in addition contributed $500 to the Methodist Twentieth Century Fund. As Mr. F. A. Atkins says, "He might have made ten thousand [pounds] a year as a barrister, but he preferred to be a Methodist preacher with the salary of a managing clerk."

The fact that the attention of students in other parts of the world is specially directed toward English institutions, by the Rhodes scholarships or whatever else, makes Gilbert C. Bourne's 'Introduction to the Study of the Comparative Anatomy of Animals—Vol. II., The Cœlomate Metazoa' (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan) a very timely publication. The author's selections of types of animal organization for dissection, description, and comparison have been determined by the requirements of students reading for the preliminary and intermediate science examinations in the universities of Great Britain; yet the work is quite as well adapted to the needs of students and teachers in foreign countries as in England. As will be seen from the list, the chosen types have close allies in nearly all parts of the earth, and the slight differences that exist only add interest to comparison. A good deal of the work is embryological, and in embryos

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the minor differences are less likely to appear than in adult forms. The types include the liver fluke (Distomum), the worms Lumbricus and Polygordius, the molluscs Anodonta and Helix, the crustacea Apus and Astacus, the insect Periplaneta, the lancelet Branchiostoma (here named Amphioxus), the shark Scylliorhinus (here named Scyllium), the frog Rana, and the mammal Homo. The nuclei of definitions are prominently indicated in bold-face type. In most cases the specific name of the type under dissection is given; an exception appears to be made in the case of "the frog." Some of the names are antiquated. Opportunities for criticism in regard to treatment, thoroughness, and accuracy are comparatively few. It is a pleasure to deal with a work of so much excellence.

'Clinical Psychiatry,' adapted from the German of Kraeplin by Dr. A. Ross Defendorf, a lecturer at Yale, is published by Macmillan Co. as a text-book for students and physicians. It does not seem particularly adapted to such use, for the style is not fluent and the directions for treatment are not particularly satisfactory. We should be disposed to put it in the library for occasional consultation in confirmation or disproof of deductions from observed mental phenomena.

England's new King and Queen and President Roosevelt are in the select portrait gallery of the new issue of the *Almanach de Gotha*, its 140th (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The editor conceals his reluctance to drop the Transvaal and the Orange Free States forever from view, but notes their disappearance and hails the swimming of free Cuba into his ken. His official perplexities have arisen, he says, from unprecedented changes in the diplomatic service. Cabinet changes have been perhaps fewer than usual. In all civilized nations there has been a rejuvenating of the high military commands. By courteous exception, the *Almanach* gratifies a request of the Swedish Minister of Foreign Affairs in admitting to the appendix a brief account of the Nobel Foundation, with the personnel of the committees.

The desideratum in the Harvard University Catalogue which we have long expressed, viz., a page reference for instructors' names in the index, is, we are glad to observe, supplied in the new issue for 1902-03. One who wishes to learn the rank and chair of a member of the teaching corps, for example, is no longer obliged to search through the entire list of "officers of instruction and administration," arranged, not alphabetically, but "on the basis of collegiate seniority."

The nineteenth annual report of the American Bureau of Ethnology opens with an extended administrative report by the late Col. Powell. To this document he appended a short outline of "Esthetology, or the Science of Activities designed to give Pleasure." This is a treatment of the games, art, music, drama, etc., by which savages attempt to render their tedious lives more agreeable. The papers accompanying the report are of rare value, and largely from the hands of specialists regularly connected with the Bureau. Of these the Myths of the Cherokee, by James Mooney, is noteworthy, embellished as it is by a careful study of the historical setting of the racial contact of Cherokee and European. Three papers are given to the Puebloan Tusayans, one to the mounds of Northern Honduras, and three to numbers and calendar-systems. Of the latter, "Primitive Numbers," by W. J. McGee, offers data for important generalizations. "The Wild Rice Gatherers of the Upper Lakes," by A. E. Jenks, is a valuable study in culture-history. The printing and the plates of these two volumes are, as usual, of a high class; but the plate-work suffers in comparison with that of several years ago, specially when in color.

The 'Handelsatlas' of A. Scobel (Leipzig) is one of the most satisfactory aids to the teaching of commercial geography that have come under our notice. The maps are all in color, and the shades are, fortunately, so arranged as to lend themselves with comparatively little difficulty to reproduction in lantern-slides. The author has selected accurate forms of base maps, and has refrained, with few exceptions, from overloading them. His charts represent the distribution of all the most important articles of commerce—metals, minerals, and commercial flora and fauna—in great detail. These maps tell their story almost at a glance, and are well designed to aid the younger student as well as the more mature. Besides the distribution of products, the regular trade-routes, ancient and modern, are well represented; and the density of population and prevalent occupations are likewise indicated. Detail maps of all the important harbors of the world form a valuable feature; and ancient and modern colonial geography comes in for some attention. The map which represents the colonies of the Phœnicians, Carthaginians, and Greeks, together with the extent of the Roman Empire, is especially convenient, and that which shows the extent of the Hanse puts a great deal of detail in compact form. The Atlas is cheap in price.

Among the historical manuscripts published in the December Bulletin of the Boston Public Library is a letter from Boston, dated July 20, 1779, in which a reference to the possible capture of the city by the British closes with the remark that "half of the people wish their coming." Possibly this Tory leaning had much to do with the refusal to believe the news of the taking of Stony Point. "We have just recd an Account from Genl Gates of the Reduction of a fort on the north river, but the people know the credulous disposition of the Genl so well that they place no confidence in any Account he may transmit hither." In a letter dated "Park of Artillery near Morris-Town, March 19th, 1780," some details are given of the dispute between the officers and soldiers of the Pennsylvania Line, "respecting the inlistments of the latter, many of whom contend they were listed but for three years while their Officers insist on their being inlisted during the War. This dispute caused such frequent desertions while those troops were on Command on the Lines, that it was thought expedient to man the Line with the Troops from Connecticut alone."

The new Chinese tariff, which went into effect October 31, is published in the Consular Reports for December, together with the agreement between the special commissioners of the United States and of China. Consul-General Mason of Berlin describes the German processes and machinery for briquette manufacture. There is a picture of a machine "by which black dense briquettes of high caloric value are made from peat without the application of heat—simply through the action of kneading and drying." Other German industries treated are uralite, a new fireproof material, and quartizol, "a cheap, strong, fire- and water-proof brick made of fine clean quartz sand and some chemical admixture." Of peculiar interest is the prospectus of a proposed international peace exhibition of South Africa to be held at Johannesburg in 1904-05.

The principal article in the *Geographical Journal* for December is Dr. M. A. Stein's report of a journey in Chinese Turkestan, his special aim being to examine some of the ancient ruins seen by Sven Hedin and other travellers. It was made under the direction of the Indian Government, and was the first attempt to explore this region from an archæological point of view. He visited the sites of several towns which have been submerged by what the natives term the "great sand ocean," and found numerous remains dating back to the second century of our era. Among these were statues, stucco images, rilievos, frescoes, ornamental wood-carving, and coins. Orchards and gardens could be traced, and in one place a row of fallen poplars was discovered. The most important finds were several hundred wood tablets, the great majority of which were written in an Indian language. Some were in a non-Indian language, but written in Indian characters, and may prove to be an indigenous tongue spoken by the people of that period. When they are deciphered, it is hoped that they will throw light upon a lost chapter of Central Asian history. In his notes of a trip through Uganda, Sir C. Eliot recommends the use of automobiles for the transport of goods—an experiment which has been successfully tried in the Congo Free State. Capt. R. Amundsen describes his proposed expedition to determine the position of the North Magnetic Pole. He hopes to start in May, 1903, with eight companions and return by way of Bering Straits in the summer of 1907.

It is significant of the progress of Japan in scientific knowledge that the leading place in *Petermann's Mittcilungen*, No. 11, should be given to a morphologic study of the Selouchi or Inland Sea by Dr. N. Yamasaki of Tokyo. After briefly adverting to the important place which the sea has occupied in the history and industries of the nation, he describes the topography of its shores and numerous islands, its geologic history, the peculiar features of its bottom, and the changes which are taking place mainly through erosion. Hauptmann W. Stavenhagen gives another instalment of his review of Russian cartography, past and present.

—Truth is no longer in a well. From the Esoteric Centre of Washington she has come out, and even now, but sexless and pure, in the astrality of the Occultist, Dr. A. de Sarâk, Count of Das, she is radiating forth, "forward, ever forward," even to Boston, "dissipating darkness" by luminous lies and "proclaiming peace" with a steady flagellation of her dearest foes, the Theosophists. Great was Blavatsky, the Russian spy who succumbed to the influence of the most notoriously ignorant quack of India; but greater still is the astrality of the Count of Das, who will "hatch out a

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bird or a fish in the space of a few minutes," and can thus (for in the persuasive words of his review, "this is logic") prove his title to be an Adept superior to the "poor old gentleman, proud of his title," at the head of the Theosophists. All this we learn from a rapt perusal of the first number of the first volume of the *Radiant Truth*, managed by Miss S. L. Lee, late a Theosophist, but now a successful scorner of that heresy, and edited by the glorious Count himself, who spells Krishna as Christna (as if Christ could be thought to derive from India!); attributes to the Vedas ideas utterly foreign to them; cites from Manu verses not found in Manu; and cheerfully endorses the claims of one Jontin, an extant alchemist, who can "manufacture the diamond, gold, and the elixir of life." But this is not all. The *Radiant Truth* publishes Occult *secrets*, and, that all may test the truth of the *Truth*, it even prophesies. Who would not be inspired? Hear, all ye poets and clergymen: "To facilitate inspiration, breathe from time to time the perfume of the leaves of the Lemon Verbena plant. It is good to carry about the person three leaves of the Lemon Verbena, gathered on a Sunday, three hours after sunrise." And this is the twentieth century! As to the prophecies which are to substantiate beyond cavil of the Theosophist the claims of the Occultist, only one is vouchsafed to us by the astral Count in this first number of his *Radiant Truth:* "Our review will meet with the greatest success."

—There is little to edify in the Poe-Chivers papers, an instalment of which appears in the January *Century*, with editorial introduction and comment by Professor Woodberry. Some may be interested to learn that Poe's temperament was bilious, nervous, sanguineous, but, upon first view, appeared to be bilious, sanguineous, nervous; or that he was "the Incarnation of the Greek Prometheus, chained to the Mount Caucasus of demi-civilized Humanity, with the black Vulture of Envy feeding on his self-replenished heart"; or that Tennyson's poems are "as effeminate as a phlegmatic fat baby"; or that Lowell's Rosaline was "as palpable a plagiarism as was ever palmed off by arrogant mental mediocrity upon a too credulous Public"; but unless the limitations of Dr. Chivers are themselves of importance, no important interest has suffered by the long slumber of his opinions. A final instalment is to follow in February. The "so-called" Sugar Trust (since they are all so called, why not consult brevity and call them so?) is considered by Franklin Clarkin, with somewhat fewer details of management than have characterized the previous articles of the series. Albert Shaw writes of the President and the Trusts, censuring the managers of these organizations for their reluctance to accept the policy of publicity and governmental regulation for which the President has declared. The editor pleads earnestly and thoughtfully, as he has often pleaded before, for the status of friendship between labor and capital, rather than the status of warfare so generally maintained at present.

—Benjamin Kidd, still harping on my daughter, contributes to the January *Harper's* a further presentation of his theory of "projected efficiency," whereby he seeks to reconcile the facts of social life and progress with the doctrine of the survival of the fittest as it is held in respect of the lower realms of life. In the earlier stages of human existence, immediate efficiency was the price of survival; as the races have advanced, the successful candidate has more and more become that race which carries not only those qualities necessary to efficiency in the present, but also the burden of qualities which will contribute to a higher efficiency in the future. Natural Selection is at work, therefore, among human kind as elsewhere, but in this field her discriminations are now based not so much upon present fitness as upon "the degree of efficiency of the subordination of the present to the future." Wu Ting-fang writes interestingly, as always, of Chinese and Western civilization. If it were not for the mistaken fear of recognizing anything commendable in a non-Christian civilization, the mission of such a man as Wu Ting-fang might have done an immeasurable amount of good in establishing a basis for mutual respect and understanding between China and the United States; and no thoughtful and unprejudiced person can doubt that the reception of the fundamental principles of Christianity in China would be much more rapid under such conditions than it has been in the past. James B. Connolly writes a vivid description of Arctic whaling, as it is carried on to-day, but it is impossible to get the real spirit of adventure into a chase that ends by shooting an explosive bomb into the whale with a mechanically operated gun. Professor Kittredge, of Harvard, illustrates briefly the current growth of language by the formation of new words, counselling, with Horace and so many others, a mean between the unyielding purist and the reckless innovator.

—The November number of the Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science contains a study, by F. R. Fairchild of Yale University, of the financing of the South African war. A detailed history of the financial operations of the war is followed by sections devoted to a more general discussion of the war taxes and the Government borrowing, and to a summary of the cost of the war and the means by which it has been met. The total cost of the war, covering only actual expenditure during the four years of war (the official estimates being used for the year 1902-3), is computed at £212,609,000, being made up of the three items—supply services, £196,657,000; interest on loans, £9,367,000; discounts on loans, £6,585,000. This expenditure has been met as follows: by suspending the sinking fund, £9,228,000; by taxation, £53,208,000; by borrowing, £150,173,000. Of the additional taxation levied to meet war expenditure, the most important measures are the import duty on sugar and the export duty on coal, enacted in 1901, and the import duty on corn and flour, enacted in 1902; this last particularly interesting, in view of Great Britain's long abstention from any form of "corn laws." A remarkable feature is the fact that the heavy outlay for war expenses induced no economy along other lines; on the contrary, the ordinary expenditure of the Government was increased by about £23,000,000 during the past three years. Additional taxation to the amount of more than £75,000,000 was imposed during the war, of which only £53,000,000 was devoted to war expenditure.

—The war loans amounted in all to £159,000,000, of which £92,000,000 took the form of consols. The loans were very successful, so far as popular response is concerned, but the terms which the Government was able to make became more and more unfavorable as the war progressed, as appears from the contrast between the first loan, issued at 98½, and the last one, which was floated at 93½. At the close of the war, consols stood at 96, having dropped ten points or more since the summer of 1899. The very low point of 91⅛ was reached in November, 1901. Other forces, however, besides the war borrowing, contributed somewhat to the fall in consols. A comparison with the other principal wars in which Great Britain has been engaged since 1688 shows that the total cost of the South African war has been exceeded by only one other war, the twenty-three years' war with France (1793-1815). No other war has reached half the cost of the South African war. In proportion to its duration, the cost of the recent war is half as great again as that of any previous one. A greater proportion of the cost has been met by borrowing than was the case in the other important wars of the past century.

—'Some Experiences of an Irish R. M.' was a blithe work that won an immediate popularity, even with readers who knew nothing of the happy-go-lucky existence described by its authors, Martin Ross and E. Œ. Somerville. Their latest joint production, 'A Patrick's Day Hunt' (E. P. Dutton & Co.), is a short story profusely illustrated with colored plates. The scene is laid in County Cork, but the description of the pack, the run, and the members of the hunt would fit any hunting county in Ireland. "The like o' the crowd of people that was in Kyleranny that day never you seen—side-cars, and carts, and phaytons, and all sorts, let alone them that was goin' huntin'. Ye wouldn't hardly know there was hounds in it at all with the dint of the people that'd be around them, and it 'd be as good for you to thry to get into Heaven as to get past the cross roads. Ye'd lose your life cursin' before the owld women 'd stand out from under your feet. Ye'd have to be going around them this way, the same as a person that'd be winding a watch. 'Is it sick the Major is, that he's not in it?' says I to Tim Hurley, the Whip (that's the son of an Aunt of mine by the Mother), when I got to come at him, 'and Johnny Daly riding Monaloo?' 'He has the 'fluenzy,' says Tim. 'Is it bad with him?' says I. 'He's bad enough to-day,' says he, 'but yesterday he was clear dead altogether.' 'It's a pity anything would ail him,' says I. The Major was a fine man, always, and his family was a fine family. Sure me father used to say that in owld times if ye went to the big house ye'd get the smell o' roast beef when ye'd be no more than half-way up the avenue, and there'd be dhrinkin' all day and knockin' all night, and if ye axed the change of a half-crown it wasn't in it. Faith, I said to John Daly, there wouldn't be any fun, nor no cursin,' nor nothing, when the Major wouldn't be in it." Miss Martin of Ross is one of the well-known Galway family called for generations the "Kings of Connemara." Galway is a county notorious in Irish hunting circles for the "Galway

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Blazers," which is the suggestive name of the most popular hunt. Miss Martin's handling of the vernacular is, naturally, excellent, and her experiences are at first hand. In a Christmas gift book like the present work the illustrations count for much, and Miss Somerville's share in the volume is perhaps the more important. The printing of the colored plates by Evans of London is unusually good.

LOWELL THE REFORMER.

The Anti-Slavery Papers of James Russell Lowell. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

Immediately after his marriage to Maria White at the close of 1844, Lowell went to sojourn in Philadelphia, and entered into an engagement with the abolition *Pennsylvania Freeman* to furnish an editorial article fortnightly at five dollars apiece. Later, returned to the East, he rendered a service of the same kind to the *National Anti-Slavery Standard* of New York, but weekly, and at twice the previous pay. These leaders (five from the Philadelphia journal, in 1845, fifty from the New York, 1846-1850), were examined by Mr. Horace Scudder in preparing his Life of Lowell; some were epitomized, some freely quoted from. The need of this elegant reprint, therefore, is not at first sight apparent. Nevertheless, the collection shows how much an acute editor may miss by attacking his material piecemeal. On page 236 of his first volume, Mr. Scudder, with a slant at those abolitionists who, while being stigmatized as men of one idea, were chided or reviled for having too many reformatory irons in the fire, says of Lowell:

"His imagination and his sense of humor both prevented him from being a thick-and-thin reformer, and he refused to allow his hatred of slavery to be complicated with practical measures for the reform of various other evils which troubled society."

This is echoed by the scarcely well-informed writer of the Introduction to the present reprint, when he pronounces Lowell "surprisingly free from radicalism," yet cites approvingly from the very first leader in the *Freeman* the passage: "The aim of the true Abolitionist is not only to put an end to Negro slavery in America: he is equally the sworn foe of tyranny throughout the world." And here he stops, but Lowell, as will be seen on page 6, was arguing for that divorce of the anti-slavery agitation from politics to which the radical Garrison held his faction, since "if American slavery be politically abolished, the power of the abolitionist will extend no farther." And again, four years later (p. 195):

"Though chattel slavery be the most odious shape in which oppression presents itself, it is well for us to be accustomed to consider the abolition of it, not as an end, but as a step toward a more perfect reorganization of society."

In 1849, concerning Greeley's "contemptuous expressions toward Garrison and those who are nicknamed Garrisonians," Lowell wrote (ii., 83):

"The friends of every class of Reform in America owe a debt to Garrison, and in such matters there should be no repudiation. Especially let not the butt end of the wedge sneer at the *ultraism* of the entering part."

In fact, Lowell was at no pains to conceal his opposition to capital punishment, or his temperance views (in sympathy with his wife's brother William), or his condemnation of a pro-slavery church and clergy. But these volumes also make clear his complete possession by ideas which would now be called Socialistic. Of this, Mr. Scudder takes not the least notice, and his index has but two entries under Socialism, one in connection with Henry George and the address on Democracy of 1884; the other with the Introduction to 'The World's Progress' (1887), and both antipathetic to State Socialism. We must resist the temptation to cite freely on this point. Here is a decisive quotation from page 10 of the first volume:

"It is not money or railroads or factories that the Northern monopolist usurps; he lays his selfish hands upon human freedom like his brother at the South, and hence a feeling of unavoidable sympathy between them. The system of labor and of its reward at the North we sincerely believe to be but little better than that at the South."

The sound of this in his ears came back to him four years later while he still confessed that "the arguments of the anti-land-monopolists are entirely conclusive." He hedged a little (ii., 137):

"We do not see how any advantage is to spring from disputes as to whether this or that injurious system is entitled to an evil preëminence; but we are not to be supposed as granting that chattel-slavery is no worse than wage-slavery. It is one of those assertions which recoil disastrously upon those who make them."

We take leave of this theme by noticing the cropping up of Lowell's Socialism in the words he puts into Calhoun's mouth in the absurd colloquy with Foote and Cass. See particularly pages 79 and 82 of volume one for this curious incarnation. Mr. Scudder thinks the interlocutors "decidedly more discriminated in character than his old men of straw, Philip and John, so that the reader really seems to hear these worthies discoursing together, and not struggling against the betrayal of the master of the show, who is shifting his voice from one to the other." Calhoun, however, is unmistakably the mouthpiece of the Socialist playwright.

The present Introducer is again at fault—traducer rather—when he says that Mr. Lowell "never sympathized with the extreme wing of the Abolitionists in their attacks on the Constitution and their proposals to dissolve the Union." However, on page 4 following, one may read: "the new position assumed by the American Society [for disunion, seven months previously]. . . . I rejoice at the stand which has been taken by the Society. In my eyes it never looked so sublimely as now." On page 13—"reverence for a pro-slavery Constitution," "the utter worthlessness of that piece of parchment." On page 43 (of Webster)—"the defender of the 'Constitution' when he might have been the champion of Freedom and of Man!" On the corresponding page of volume two—"In repudiating the doctrine of dissolution as if it were something odious and shameful, we think he [the editor of the Boston *Republican*] acts unwisely."

At this period, Mr. Lowell was at one with his associates in standing fast for a purely moral agitation, and in holding it impossible to combine this with the conduct of a political anti-slavery party; at one in regarding (as did Birney) the American church as the bulwark of American slavery, and in finding it natural in the new "third party" to "resolve" that its members "have nothing to do with the assailants of the church and clergy." The prime utility of this reprint is in demonstrating just the reverse of what is ignorantly stated in the Introduction.

Lowell was not a born journalist; he was not even a born prose-writer. His natural vehicle was verse, as he again and again declared. These papers show a disproportionately long vestibule, an extensive cutting out of work, and a sudden pull-up. The seriousness of the reformer and the exuberance of the humorist often destroy the "keeping" of an article. From epigrammatic phrases like "public *want* of opinion," or "morals as high as the cispenitentiary degree—enough, that is, to keep them out of the State's Prison," we pass to an allusion to the "dark horse" custom of Presidential conventions, "The only feasible plan for them is to buy another pig in a Polk," or an allusion to the scriptural defence of slavery combined with mob violence, "an entertainment [for the anti-slavery lecturer] of Ham and eggs (the clergy and people contributing their respective quotas), which kept the promise of hospitality to the ear and broke it to the sense." Through it all, one encounters noble and inspiring sentiments never out of date, as, of caste: "When the moral vision of a man becomes perverted enough to persuade him that he is superior to his fellow, he is in reality looking up at him from an immeasurable distance beneath." True to-day is it: "In this country the civilization of the people has not yet come nearly up to the political principles set forth in the Declaration of Independence." All that relates to Webster, and there is a good deal here, is worth attention now, as showing how long before his 7th of March speech his readiness to sacrifice his principles for the Presidency was mistrusted. Latter-day whitewashing, with its false assumption of a juster perspective, needs this contemporary check. Let any one answer now Lowell's interrogatories in 1846 (i., 37): "What has Freedom to thank Daniel Webster for? What has Peace? What has Civilization? What has that true Conservatism which consists in bringing the earth forward and upward to the idea of its benign Maker?" This passage is succeeded by a striking personal reminiscence of Webster "when he defended himself in Faneuil Hall against the outraged Whiggism of Boston for having retained his seat in the Tyler cabinet," and displayed all his magnetic power and majesty of person.

These volumes demanded an index, which is denied them, and invited annotation. Twentieth-century readers need to be told who was "the Fox of Kinderhook" (ii., 49); to have the South Carolinian John Brown (i., 202) identified; to have the dictum, "That is property which the law makes property," remarked for Clay's on page 84 of volume two, before the ascription is overtaken on page 191. Shall we not also admit, with shame, that the historical satire on page 72 in the first volume will escape the penetration of fairly attentive readers? "Hangman" Foote *loquitur*:

"If, for the sake of appearances, he [Jefferson] declaimed against our wisest and

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most cherished institution, he was neither so thriftless nor so inhuman as to turn the Ishmaels he had begotten into the desert. He was a prudent and economical farmer of all the qualities of his nature. If he made his organ of language profitable to him as a politician, he no less enriched his pocket as a private citizen by his philoprogenitiveness."

Finally, time's irony on the art judgment on page 218 of volume i., "Probably this world has never had five such sculptors as Powers," called for anticipation of the inquiry from the present generation—"Who the deuce was Powers?"

So tasteful, fairly costly, and limited an edition was bound to be correspondingly free from printers' errors. For the benefit of purchasers we subjoin such as we have observed: volume i. (p. 26, line 8), "these" for those; (p. 39, lines 12 and 14), omit comma after shallowness, "di grege" for "de grege"; volume ii. (p. 53, first line of last paragraph), "as" for from; (p. 172, last line), "natural" for neutral (compare p. 175); (p. 183, line 16), supply "law" after "moral"; (p. 195, line 5 from bottom), "put" for puts.

THE POLITICS OF ARISTOTLE.

The Politics of Aristotle. With an Introduction, two Prefatory Essays, and Notes Critical and Explanatory, by W. L. Newman. Vols. III. and IV. Pp. xlvi, 603, lxx., 708. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1902.

The works of Aristotle have been sadly neglected by classical scholars in America. Not one in five hundred of American college graduates has read a page of Aristotle in the original, and not one in a hundred has been required by his college courses to read a page even in a translation. Yet Aristotle is the "master of those who know." Huxley in late middle life learned Greek in order to read his works in the original, although we should expect observations made before the invention of the microscope to be of slight interest to a modern scientist; and he showed in an interesting case that Aristotle was right where his unscientific interpreters had believed him wrong. And Gladstone is said to have counted the 'Politics' one of the three books to which he was most indebted. An examination of the catalogues of fourteen prominent colleges and universities of this country shows that courses in Aristotle's Nicomachean Ethics are offered by two universities in Greek and by two in English. The 'Metaphysics' is studied in English or in Greek in three universities, and the 'Categories' in one. Two courses are offered on the 'Constitution of Athens' and one on the 'Politics' in Greek, while the reading of the 'Politics' in English is part of the work in political science at two other institutions. But in the particular year covered by the catalogues examined, these courses in the 'Constitution of Athens' and the 'Politics' in Greek were not given.

The published work of American classical scholars shows the same neglect of Aristotle. No paper on him or his works is printed in the 'Transactions' of the first thirty annual meetings of the American Philological Association, and the index to the first twenty volumes of this publication notes but one such paper as read before the Association. The first twenty volumes of the *American Journal of Philology* contain but one article based on a work of Aristotle, suggested by the then recently discovered 'Constitution of Athens,' and one note of less than a page in length on the 'Metaphysics.' In the first ten volumes of the "Harvard Studies in Classical Philology," the nearest approach to our author is in a paper on Homeric quotations in Plato and Aristotle, which naturally does not enter into esoteric Aristotelian discussions. Apparently, only two or three American dissertations for the degree of Ph.D. in classics have had to do with Aristotle. His position in German scholarship forms a marked contrast to his treatment in America. An index to the German classical publications for a quarter of a century, 1873-98, gives nearly twice as many pages to Aristotle as to any other Greek author. Such eminence is doubtless due to the volume and variety of his works, but this makes the American indifference still more noteworthy. But two or three of our classical scholars of a younger generation are now publishing occasional papers on him in philosophical periodicals, and at last the influence may spread to the philological.

Oxford, however, is the true stronghold of the study of Aristotle in modern times. Probably no other city, large or small, contains so many scholars acquainting themselves at first hand with at least some of his views. Of the great and useful editions of Aristotle's works published in the course of the last thirty years, England has furnished more than all other countries together. For the study of the Nicomachean Ethics the most important works are Bywater's critical edition of the text, Jackson's learned and stimulating edition of Book V., Stewart's two volumes of commentary, and the convenient exegetical editions of Sir Alexander Grant and of Burnet. In recent years, Germany has given us no work to match any one of these, except Susemihl's poorly printed edition of the text. For other works, Kenyon's and Sandys's editions of the 'Constitution of Athens,' Wallace's 'Psychology,' Cope and Sandys's 'Rhetoric,' and Butcher's 'Poetics' give the fullest and best commentaries of recent years. Jowett's translation of the 'Politics,' with a volume of notes, just preceded the publication of the first two volumes of Newman's edition, and in 1894 Hicks published an excellent and convenient revision and translation of the first part of Susemihl's edition with German commentary. Thus we have a fine shelf-ful of English editions of Aristotle, scholarly and attractive, in large type which contrasts strikingly with the typography of the ordinary German editions. The quarto edition of the Berlin Academy, published in 1831, has become such a standard for reference that the preservation of the same lines is convenient, and, to attain this end, the Teubner text of Aristotle is set in type much smaller than that used for the other Greek authors, while the English publishers have been luxurious in the use of large type and good paper.

The first two volumes of Newman's edition of the 'Politics' were published in 1887, and were reviewed in these columns. The four volumes contain 2,513 pages, of which 224 are occupied by the Greek text, 131 by critical notes, 1,177 by the exegetical commentary, about 700 by essays and appendixes, and 132 by indexes. The ordinarily convenient plan of having text and notes on the same page is manifestly impracticable here, since less than one-tenth of the space is given to the text, which hence would form but a narrow rivulet on the page. Consequently, the reader who desired a copious draught of Aristotle rather than of commentary would be seriously inconvenienced, having but a small part of a sentence on the page before him, for frequently the comments on a single line occupy more than a page. But this arrangement is at least more convenient than that of Stewart's commentary of 1,012 pages on the 'Ethics,' which furnishes no text of its own, but refers the reader to Bywater's edition. The 'Politics' should be read by many more than have the leisure to study such a commentary and such essays as Newman's, but this edition will be of high value not only to those who take it all in course, but perhaps especially to those who desire to consult it occasionally. The reviewer has read about five hundred pages of the commentary, and pronounces it anything but dull and heavy reading. The editor, like Aristotle himself, draws illustrations from all quarters, including the modern as well as the ancient world. Frequent references are made to Bryce's 'American Commonwealth.' Bare references to authorities are not so frequent as full quotations, and the commentary will be useful to the student of political science who, with a limited knowledge of Greek, is using Jowett's or Welldon's translation, but desires a commentary. The characteristics of the first two volumes are maintained. The work is learned and accurate, and furnishes the most complete apparatus for the study of the 'Politics' which is likely to be published within the lifetime of scholars of to-day. Perhaps some may feel a certain lack of perspective, in the similar treatment of more familiar and less familiar matters, but for such a work this has its advantages. That nothing should be overlooked, and that the editor should agree with the reviewer in the interpretation of all doubtful passages, could not be expected.

An interesting Appendix of Reminiscences of passages in the writings of Plato could be extended. It does not include the remark in 1324 b 22, that the true statesman will not hold a part of his art to be the consideration how he shall acquire power over men, whether they desire it or not. This is a distinct allusion to Plato's "Ship of State" (in the 'Republic,' 488), where the true pilot, who is fitted to command, will not think there is any art in securing control of the ship, and, if there be such an art, will believe this to be incompatible with the art of ruling. The Aristotelian passage aids in the interpretation of the Platonic sentence, and, on the other hand, a careful comparison of the Platonic sentence would have saved the editor from suggesting an inconsistent construction for one of Aristotle's words. In another passage the editor seems to be out of his true field. At 1338 a 25, Aristotle quotes as Homeric a verse which is not found in our manuscripts of Homer, and then adds a bit which is in our Odyssey. The editor, with others, supposes that the two fragments belong together, and he rewrites the Homeric passage so as to introduce the new line. In the process, however, he omits a half-verse which is quoted with the follow-

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ing by Plato in the 'Republic,' and makes carpenters to be called not to a settlement as useful men for a hamlet (as our Homeric text would have it), but to a feast, in which we may suppose they could be of no special service. The Homeric nobles had reasonable views of the dignity of labor, but they would not take special pains to invite carpenters to their feasts, and the Homeric passage does not imply a feast, but work.

The editor adopted fifteen years ago the view that Books VII. and VIII. of the MSS. and old editions had been displaced, and should follow immediately after Books I.-III. To this order, naturally, he holds still, only saying rather mildly that he is not sure that Wilamowitz-Moellendorff is right in his view of the original order and its change. Wilamowitz believes that Aristotle's lectures on politics were among his very earliest courses of instruction, and that they were often repeated; that the discussion of fundamental questions (Books I.-III.) was followed originally by a consideration of the best state (Books VII., VIII.), though in later years the lecturer postponed the discussion of the best constitution, and inserted a discussion of the essence, the differences, and the changes in constitutions (Books IV.-VI.), but, since the course was often repeated, parts of I.-III. may be later than VII., VIII. Every teacher of to-day will readily believe that Aristotle was not able always to conclude his course of lectures exactly as he had planned, and will demand no further explanation of the groups IV.-VI. and VII., VIII. Huxley thought that our manuscripts of the 'Historia Animalium' were based on notes taken by students, explaining thus from his own examination of note-books the broad contrast between acute, accurate observations, due to the master, and minor inaccuracies which are likely to be due to the student. Every instructor is grieved at times to learn how he has been misunderstood even by his best students. Newman rejects the view that our 'Politics' is based on students' note-books, and as evidence of this calls attention in the commentary to passages which show attention to literary style not likely to be caught by a student in taking notes. Wilamowitz believes that our 'Politics' is based on the drafts which Aristotle made for use in his lectures, drafts used several times and containing both earlier and later elements. This seems to explain the facts better than any other hypothesis. That some passages were written out in greater detail than others and with particular care is natural. Nothing indicates that either this work or the Ethics was published by the philosopher himself. We know him, perhaps, after all, rather as a teacher than as an author. The 'Historia Animalium' may have been published from note-books, in default of the lecturer's drafts, but the 'Politics' from his papers after his death.

Aristotle collected through his students more than one hundred and fifty constitutions of States in Greece and out of it. This collection was of great use to him in his lectures, and the gathering and sifting of the material must have been admirable work for his "research-students"—just such subjects as are sought by the modern candidate for the degree of Ph.D. Perhaps an analogy for the number and variety of these constitutions might be found in American colleges and universities, where many experiments have been made in administration, the government of students, the manner of appointment and the tenure of office of the instructors, the duties of instructors and their part in the management of the institution, and the like. Each of the older institutions and others still very young have made changes in these respects, which would prove an interesting subject for investigation. If the facts could be ascertained, what principles one college had borrowed from another, and why it had deviated from the ordinary rule, under what influences and with what limitations the appointing power had been given to the President, or to the trustees, or to the faculty, material for a doctor's dissertation would be at hand in almost every college. A change of administration and the introduction of a strong man as President has often caused a complete change in the unwritten constitution of the college. Many such essays must be written before a really authoritative book on college administration in America can be composed.

The editor's criticism of Aristotle's treatment of education may be of interest:

"Does Aristotle's scheme of education call for enough effort from the young? . . . Would not a training which gave them more difficulties to face and to conquer, develop in them more force of will and be more really useful to them? Does not education largely consist in requiring the power and the will to do that which is distasteful to us, when it ought to be done?"

Rhode Island—Its Making and its Meaning: A Survey of the Annals of the Commonwealth from its Settlement to the Death of Roger Williams, 1636-1683. By Irving Berdine Richman. With an introduction by James Bryce. In two volumes. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902.

Mr. Richman's book is not a study in the origins of political or economic institutions, or an analysis of the forms of colonial government. It is essentially a plain narrative of the chief events connected with the early history of Rhode Island, from 1636 to 1683; it is the story of the "making" of Rhode Island, told for the purpose of elucidating its "meaning"—for the purpose, that is, of showing that Roger Williams and the colony which he founded furnish the connecting link between the religious reformation of the sixteenth century and the political revolution of the eighteenth century. The central idea of the Reformation was individualism. Roger Williams was the first man to understand the full significance of individualism on its religious side; he did not, however, fully understand the significance of individualism on its political side. It was the work of Rhode Island, as distinguished from the work of Roger Williams, to understand and establish this idea also.

This theory is worked out substantially as follows: Massachusetts, in attempting to establish and maintain a theocracy, found itself in conflict with the "Time Spirit" of toleration. This "Time Spirit," which was represented in America by Roger Williams and others, supplied the condition which made a new colony necessary. Rhode Island was the result of this necessity. Freedom of conscience was made the cornerstone of the new colony, and the struggle for "political individualism" was immediately begun. This struggle finds its expression, on the mainland in the establishment of government by a majority of householders, on the island in the contest between the Coddington people and the "Hutchinson-Gorton combination." In both cases the principle of political individualism triumphed. The land system which was developed was typical of the same struggle; that of Providence was opposed to political individualism, while that of Aquidneck fostered it. The further development of this principle, which was given wide recognition in the first Rhode Island Constitution (the government established in 1647-50), was checked for the time being by Coddington's "coup d'état," and was ultimately subject to some wholesome restrictions, the precise nature of which does not clearly appear. The principle of freedom of conscience was formally recognized by the English Government in 1644 and in 1663, but meanwhile, in practice, it encountered, at the hands of "Destiny," two crucial tests. The first "test" was that of persecution, at the hands of Massachusetts, in the persons of Holmes, Clarke, and Crandall. The second "test" was concealed in the problem as to how far individualism should be allowed full swing in resisting governmental authority. For this test the instrument of Destiny was William Harris, who denied the legitimacy of any governmental restraint. At this point Roger Williams and Rhode Island part company: the former maintains that individualism shall not be permitted to go so far; the latter maintains the doctrine of "Soul Liberty" to the logical end. Nevertheless, by the author's own account, after political individualism had "paralyzed the arm of Rhode Island in time of peril from the Indians," the colony itself apparently came back to the position of Williams, or nearly so.

When a student of history groups the results of a long series of careful investigations about a central principle or theory, the initial question which must always be asked is this: Is the theory the result of the investigation, or is the investigation the result of the theory; has the student tried to "understand by investigation," or has he investigated what he is convinced he already understands? In the latter case the work will most likely have very little historical value. In the former case a second question arises: Is the theory a correct inference from the facts which have been presented?

While one is strongly tempted to suspect that Mr. Richman's investigation was the result of his theory rather than the reverse, the book is in no sense mere special pleading. On the other hand, the author has produced an unusually careful and impartial piece of investigation. It is based upon a full knowledge of the printed sources, and the examination of some important manuscript collections. It has been presented with great wealth of detail, and in a style that is clear and not without its charm. While less attention has been paid to constitutional questions than one might expect, and while the almost total disregard of economic conditions is disappointing, the author has nevertheless shown otherwise a sufficient care for proportion and perspective, and no event or phase of development has been wrenched,

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to any appreciable extent, out of its proper setting for purposes of advocacy. So conscientiously, indeed, has the work of investigation been done that it does not, in great part, obviously or convincingly connect itself with the theory which it purports to set forth. There are whole chapters (*e. g.*, x., xiv., xv.; the last is perhaps the most valuable part of the book) which are altogether remote, apparently, from the central thesis; while most of the chapters which do connect themselves with that thesis contain much extraneous matter. This distinction is clear even in the table of contents, where the statement of the theory has been sandwiched in, at proper points, between the chapter headings. The theory, in fact, is not an unbroken thread which we follow continuously, but rather a series of mile-posts in front of which the author stops us at intervals in an interesting journey, for the purpose of indicating where, precisely, we are. The theory is thus detachable from the investigation, or the investigation from the theory, according to the inclination of the reader, neither interfering seriously with the other. If, therefore, Mr. Richman has technically adopted the method of the advocate rather than the method of the historian (we do not assert that he has), he has successfully avoided the dangers which that method inevitably involves.

As for his theory in general, one may be permitted to suggest that it is a far cry from the reformation of the sixteenth century to the revolution of the eighteenth, and perhaps so small a link as Rhode Island is likely to need some stretching before it can be made successfully to reach from the one to the other. On the whole, Mr. Richman appears to us a careful investigator, but not altogether a profound political philosopher. It is his contention, for instance, that Roger Williams did not understand the full significance of "Soul Liberty" on its political side, as it is understood to-day. In a narrow sense, this is true; more broadly considered, it is not. It is true that Roger Williams believed that preaching against the legitimacy of governmental restraint might, in general, be rightly suppressed. It is true that in England and the United States such preaching is now, in general, permitted. But why? Because, in general, such preaching has no appreciable effect on the stability of the existing political authority. The fundamental question which individualism in politics raises, is not whether this or that expression of individualism shall be permitted, but it is whether the principle of individualism shall be permitted to undermine and destroy the State. Roger Williams believed essentially that it should not be permitted to do so; most people to-day, even in "England and the United States," agree with him. In fine, the "full significance" of individualism in politics is anarchy. The State, if there is to be any State at all, must protect itself by drawing a line between that expression of individualism which is permitted and that which is not. This line was drawn at one point in theocratic Massachusetts, at another in the tolerant but small and weak Rhode Island; it is drawn at still another in the great and powerful United States. The principle, however, is the same in each case; the application of it will depend upon the character of the State and the firmness of its foundation.

On the whole, the work of Mr. Richman is a valuable contribution to American Colonial history. Some exceedingly useful maps supplement the text. A fuller citation of authorities would have pleased some readers, and irritated others. An exhaustive bibliography of sources would have added materially to the value of the work.

Essays Historical and Literary. By John Fiske. Volume I. Scenes and Characters in American History. Volume II. In Favorite Fields. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

These posthumous volumes of Mr. Fiske's possess a good deal of interest, though not always a very novel interest, at least to his readers. Half of them are historical, dealing with the "last Royal Governor of Massachusetts," Hamilton, Jefferson, Madison, Jackson, Webster, and other worthies; the other half gives us *inter alia* glimpses of the historical method, of Mr. Fiske's view of the bearing of evolution on religion, reminiscences of Tyndall and Huxley. They are all of a popular sort—that is, are designed for a popular audience—and must not be read too critically. They all have merit, derived not merely from lucidity, but from a characteristic simplicity which was Mr. Fiske's own, and which helped to give him the art of carrying his audience along with him, no matter what he touched upon. Occasionally his simplicity gets the better of him; he falls into a kind of boyishness of expression which is perhaps not well suited to the subject in hand.

In his essay on Old and New Ways of Treating History he gives a much clearer exposition of what the new historical school, successors of the men of the order of Freeman, Stubbs, and Gardiner, are about than they have ever given for themselves; with all the more impartiality, too, that he was not himself altogether one of them. He was primarily a scientific man (his scientific attainments and learning were comprehensive enough to have made a name for him without anything else) who in the middle of his career diverged into history, and developed a remarkable power of popular historical exposition, so that, while he was originally known as the standard-bearer *in partibus* of the Spencerian philosophy, it seems probable now that he will be remembered chiefly hereafter by his striking contributions to American popularized history. But these contributions are not in the main works of research or original investigation. They are in many respects what historical writing was before research was ever heard of; that is, they are primarily literary, narrative, and descriptive. Their superiority over much of what went before them consisted in their being much better done, not in their being done on any novel theory or plan. They also introduced into American historical writing a feature of which Macaulay first revealed the secret—that of reconstituting the past by actually introducing us to the daily life of the period—a feature lacking in some of the best volumes of even so recent a writer as Parkman.

Of the scientific portions of these volumes we do not undertake to speak with authority. Fiske's reminiscences of Huxley and Tyndall are interesting, but perhaps the most curious paper is that in which he explains his religious views. To most minds—to Huxley's above all—the tendency of the evolutionary view of the universe was towards agnosticism. Not so, however, in the case of Mr. Fiske. Evolution is exactly what mankind has long been waiting for as a sort of new Revelation; it is what we might have anticipated, had we not been dull enough, until within a few years, to miss the point. The essay, considering who the author is, is certainly a strong proof of the ineradicable craving of the human mind for some religious basis for the phenomenal world.

We have not space to go into details, but strongly recommend the volumes, even to those who are already well acquainted with the author. The essay on Charles Lee is, to us, quite new and very entertaining.

American Animals: A Popular Guide to the Mammals of North America North of Mexico, with Intimate Biographies of the more Familiar Species. By Witmer Stone and William Everett Cram. Doubleday, Page & Co. Small 4to, pp. 341. Illustrated.

This is a good sample of what may be accomplished in a popular work scientifically handled. It is said to treat of every species and variety of mammal found in North America east of the Mississippi, all of the varieties of big game animals north of Mexico, and only the most important species of the others west of the Mississippi. A first impression obtained by turning these pages is that they contain more of real life than is the case with most works of similar purpose, and this impression is strengthened by closer examination. Mainly, it is due to the large number of excellent photographs from live animals. The pictures are ably seconded by a text well adapted for securing and retaining the reader's attention. The volume is a popular-science work, in which the popular features are generally so good as to enhance the value of the science—not the most common peculiarity of popularized science.

Points for criticism occur here and there, especially in connection with the illustrations. In many cases these are distributed without regard to their accompanying texts. The texts of the mountain goat and the mountain sheep are illustrated by the figures of the prong-horn antelope, and the article on the bison by those of the mountain goat and the musk ox. The prong-horn's text contains the figures of the woodland caribou, the only figures in the limits of the essay on the Virginia deer are those of the wapiti, and the armadillos are to be found in the description of the whalebone whales. By search the reader is able to locate figures that should be in the article to which they belong. A few of the plates are from colored drawings; in these the selection of colors in reproduction could not have been made with a view to doing justice to the artist.

At times, in the notes on habits, one may detect something like straining for a conclusion almost or quite out of reach. The old grizzly, we are told, writes his challenge by clawing the pine tree as high as he can. Another grizzly finds the tree, and, unable to reach as high, leaves the range to the first; but if able to reach as high or higher, he stays and hunts as he pleases

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until the combat decides. The author concludes:

"The method of challenging all comers is common to a great many wild beasts, large and small; not only bears of all kinds and many of the smaller hunters, but deer and moose as well. And I am inclined to think that when the house cat stretches up to sharpen his claws on the trunk of a tree, it is a similar challenge for other cats to read."

A question to be asked in this connection is whether the cat, the bear, or the deer really exerts himself to reach as high as he can when working off some of his surplus energy in this way. Beavers, again, are said to be so persecuted that they scarcely dare to raise a lodge or dam, but are compelled to hide in secret burrows beneath the bank. As a trapper would tell it, on the contrary, the beaver builds a dam and a house only when and where he needs them. On a strong stream, with an eddy in which to sink the supply of brush in front of a bank to burrow in above the floods, he is simply a "bank beaver," in need of neither dam nor house, and not so easily trapped as those with dams and houses. Fishers are said to be as much at home in the treetops as pine martens, and to climb where the partridges roost to catch them in their sleep. The partridges usually bearing the name roost on the ground. Raccoons are said to dig hornets' nests out of the turf; but the insect commonly called hornet swings his paper nest from branches or other supports in the air. A Canada lynx is said to have a "retrousse tail."

A key to the genera is given; there is also a short bibliography.

Glimpses of China and Chinese Homes. By Edward S. Morse. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1902.

Modestly set forth as is Professor Morse's volume, it is a noteworthy addition to our knowledge of China, for to this work he has brought the same competence, industry, and zeal which made his 'Japanese Homes' uniquely valuable. One does not, indeed, get from this work the idea that the author is altruistic or philanthropic. Rather, the tone of it, in contrast with his high praise, amounting sometimes to rhapsody, of the Japanese, seems startling. Perhaps he was spoiled by his comfort and his popularity in Japan. Yet, even making all allowance for the winsomeness of "things Japanese," he seems almost savage in tone when decrying the Chinese generally, so that one is almost tempted to discount the value of his judgments of Japanese, whom he flatters so highly. He does not seem to make proper allowance for the fact that the Chinese, being an old race, have necessarily the defects and diseases of age, and possibly of decrepitude; while the Japanese, in comparison, are a young race with a very new country. The critical student sees no Japanese civilization, based on writing and letters, before the fifth century of the Occidental era, while in China the historical period begins at least nine hundred years before Christ, with trustworthy traditions reaching still further. On many points the author's standards of comparison are certainly unfair, because they are always with Japan and the Japanese, and not with other countries and races. Certainly, a wider induction of facts would have given the reader more confidence in Professor Morse's judgment.

Apart from this, however, his book, for its architectural information, is a genuine contribution to science. His sketches, though possessing no artistic merit, are, for truth, at the antipodes of the deceptive or thoroughly misleading pictures of French and other artists that have so long dominated our popular works on China. The descriptions of the Chinese homes, and the dinner—with the leavings thrown on the floor—of the back yard, the theatre, the prison, and the peasant's house, worthily supplement, in the interests of science, Dr. Smith's great works on 'Chinese Characteristics and Village Life.' We have realistic descriptions, which we can depend upon, of the examination hall, military drill rooms, and the water clock.

In one instance, in his zeal for science, the author hired a boat and faced the howling mob in a potter's town on the river beyond Canton. Though apparently his life was in danger, he saw the working of a Chinese potter's wheel, of which he gives a sketch. The wheel rests on the ground, and the potter squats beside the wheel, while the helper, holding to a rope hung from above, rests on one foot and kicks the wheel around with the other foot. Unlike the potters in all other parts of the world, he lifts the clay vessel from the wheel, which has been previously sanded, and, though somewhat deformed by this act, the pot is afterwards straightened by the spatula and the hand. The ovens, though like those in Japan, are much more substantially built. Barren as a brick yard, the Chinese pottery, without a green leaf or flower, contrasted frightfully with the hospitality, politeness, and love of work and beauty of surroundings of the Japanese potter. Followed back to his boat by a "venomous mob of thoughtless brutes," the seeker for knowledge "no longer wondered that magistrates could order these people to be beheaded by hundreds without a quiver of feeling"—which order and process, he declares, he would at that moment have enjoyed and witnessed with equanimity. Mr. Morse justifies our Chinese Exclusion Act, believing that in those respects in which the Chinese are different from us they represent a savage race.

The book is handsomely presented and is well indexed. It will have a welcome on the lengthening shelf, where the material is gathering which some day a literary master will coördinate into science.

Our Homes, and How to Beautify Them. By H. J. Jennings. With numerous illustrations. London: Harrison & Sons. 1902. Pp. 254.

This is one of many books devoted to the subject of inexpensive decoration of domestic interiors. Although there is mention of the statelier ways in which ornamentation has been carried out in old times, and much insistence upon the splendor of Renaissance and later furniture, on the spirit and movement of Elizabethan plaster work, on the refinements in carving and in inlays of colored woods of the eighteenth-century English makers, there is still at least a superficial semblance of thinking for the people of small means who, however impecunious, must needs have suggestions of splendor. The lecturer who tries to interest his audience in interior decoration, finds the same hindrance now that he found thirty years ago: if he shows on the screen the magnificent interiors of the seventeenth century, or talks of the refined decoration of the eighteenth century, he is told by his audience, if he consults them, that he is talking over their heads and showing them what they cannot imitate. If, on the other hand, he tries to show them what they might really have which is at once tasteful and inexpensive, he will find that his audience yawns.

With the disappearance of well-defined classes of society, showing itself most obviously in the replacing of costume by fashion, there has come to be also that lack of distinction between the styles of adornment in other things than dress. There is no decoration suitable for the quiet domestic house of small cost or small rental, because its owner is not really satisfied unless there is copied in its furnishing and its appliances as much of the magnificence of the past as he has happened to notice or to have heard mentioned. The exceptions to this rule are the only interesting decorations of modern times. We have some such exceptions in the suburban houses built in the neighborhood of Boston during the last twenty years—houses in which the architects have carried their designing into the details within, and have panelled their walls and put up chimney-pieces in the character of the simple exterior, keeping all the rooms in harmony, one with another. Such interiors may be very inexpensive in their fitting up, and their furniture need cost but little, and yet there will frequently be beauty in them.

If we understand aright the book before us, the author is seeking to assert the possibility of having such things in modern England also, and while he shows magnificence, he seems to be quite aware that the person of small means ought not to seek the magnificent. The frontispiece gives the long gallery of Knole, in Kent; or, at least, a photograph of that reproduction of it which was set up by a London firm of upholsterers at the Paris Exhibition of 1900. Another full-page plate shows a "French Renaissance Dining-room," the expense of which, even if it were in pounds sterling, would be in the thousands—supposing always that the work is solid and respectable, and turned out by responsible makers of such things. But, on the other hand, there are simplicities enough: even in the large plates there is the modification of a Jacobean Hall and of a supposed Elizabethan fireplace; "a Renaissance Dining-room" which, if studied from anything of the sixteenth or seventeenth century, would at least seem to have been studied from the simplest parts of the mansion in which it is found; a "Hall for Country-house," in which the plainest of woodwork and plaster, and the commonplace fittings, unite to reassure the would-be economical builder.

There are a great number of text illustrations, half-tone cuts from good examples of writing-desks, tables, and cabinets, sofas, settees, and chairs of many epochs. But with mention of these pictures must come a needed reference to the fact that all these pictures, except a few taken from "the Louvre, South Kensington, and private collections" are furnished by one London firm, and that the text makes constant allusions to the work of this firm, so that one is a little surprised not to see their name appearing on the title-page as the

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publishers of the work. It is not to be denied that the resources of one large and enterprising firm of upholsterers might supply material enough for a book of this sort. We know of half a dozen such houses in New York—houses whose experience would work up into a most fascinating record, which would be full of instruction for such as wish to learn by the experience of others. Hence it is not absolutely in condemnation that we mention the very peculiar conditions under which this book seems to have been prepared and published.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Garland of Love: A Collection of Posy-Ring Mottoes. London: Arthur L. Humphreys.
American Essays. Edited by E. E. Hale, jr. Globe School-Book Co.
Aspects of the Jewish Question. By a Quarterly Reviewer. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Barry, William. The Papal Monarchy, from St. Gregory the Great to Boniface VIII. (The Story of the Nations.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Bell, Malcolm. Sir Edward Burne-Jones. (Bell's Miniature Series of Painters.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Bellairs, E. G. As It Is in the Philippines. Lewis, Scribner & Co. $1.50.
Bingham, N. W. Rollicking Rhymes of Old and New Times. Henry A. Dickerman & Son.
Bond, R. W. The Complete Works of John Lyly. 3 vols. Henry Frowde.
Booth, A. J. The Discovery and Decipherment of the Trilingual Cuneiform Inscriptions. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Bronson, T. B. Sur les Bords du Rhin: Selections from Victor Hugo. H. Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Carter, Mary D., and Malloy, Catharine. Cuentos Castellanos. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Castlemon, Henry. The Haunted Mine. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co.
Cowell, J. E. "I Live." Macmillan.
Custance, Olive. Rainbows. John Lane.
Dawson, A. J. Hidden Manna. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Douglas, Marion. Days We Remember. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.25.
Echols, W. H. An Elementary Text-Book on the Differential and Integral Calculus. H. Holt & Co. $2.
Eggert, C. A. Schiller's Wallenstein. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Emanuel, Walter, and Aldin, Cecil. A Dog Day: or, The Angel in the House. R. H. Russell.
Everett, C. C. Immortality, and Other Essays. Boston: American Unitarian Association. $1.20.
Fay, E. W. T. Macci Plauti Mostellaria. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
Fernow, B. E. Economics of Forestry. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.65.
Feverel, A. A. B. The Pilgrim's Scrip. Scott-Thaw Co.
Finck, Bert. Plays. Louisville: Published by the Author.
Francis, Mary C. A Son of Destiny: The Story of Andrew Jackson. The Federal Book Co. $1.50.
Griggs, E. H. A Book of Meditations. B. W. Huebsch.
Hartman, J. R. Rare-Bits of Humor in Prose and Poetry. L. J. Carey & Co.
Hastings, Hugh. Ecclesiastical Records of the State of New York. 2 vols. Albany: State Printer.
Henderson, M. S. Three Centuries in North Oxfordshire. Oxford: B. H. Blackwell; London: Edward Arnold.
Hertwig, Richard. A Manual of Zoölogy. (Translated by J. S. Kingsley.) H. Holt & Co. $3.
Hill, F. P., and Collins, V. L. Books, Pamphlets, and Newspapers Printed at Newark, New Jersey. Newark: Privately printed.
Jackson, Birdsall. Pine Dreams and Twilight Tales. F. M. Buckles & Co. $1.25.
Jewish Encyclopædia. Vol. III. Edited by Isidore Singer. Funk & Wagnalls Co.
John Crerar Library: A List of Bibliographies of Special Subjects. Chicago: The Crerar Library.
Kemp, E. W. History for Graded and District Schools. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Lamb, Charles. The Adventures of Ulysses. (Illustrated edition.) R. H. Russell. $2.50.
Landor, A. H. S. Across Coveted Lands; or, A Journey from Flushing (Holland) to Calcutta, Overland. 2 vols. Scribners.
Lee, Joseph. Constructive and Preventive Philanthropy. Macmillan.
Lodge, G. C. Poems. Cameron, Blake & Co.
McCullough, J. A. Comparative Theology. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Memorial of the Most Reverend Michael Augustine Corrigan, D.D., Third Archbishop of New York. The Cathdral Library Association.
Miers, H. A. Mineralogy: An Introduction to the Scientific Study of Minerals. Macmillan. $8.
Milburn, Lucy M. Lost Letters from Lesbos. Chicago: R. R. Donnelly & Sons Co.
Moore, C. H. Horace, the Odes, Epodes, and Carmen Sæculare. American Book Co. $1.50.
Morris, William. The History of Over Sea. With decorations by Louis Rhead. R. H. Russell.
Munro, D. C. A History of the Middle Ages. D. Appleton & Co. 90 cents.
Peel, George. The Enemies of England. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $4.50.
Piñeyro, Enrique. Hombres y Glorias de America. Paris: Garnier Hermanos.
Rankin, Jean S. Everyday English, Book One. Educational Pub. Co.
Reinach, Théodore. L'Histoire par les Monnaies: Essais de Numismatique Ancienne. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Robertson, L. A. Cloistral Strains. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. 75 cts.
Sachs, E. O. Facts on Fire Prevention: The Result of Tests Conducted by the British Fire Prevention Committee. 2 vols. London: B. T. Batsford.
Songs of the Veld, and Other Poems. Reprinted from "The New Age." London: New Age Press.
Stockham, Alice B. The Lover's World. Chicago: The Stockham Pub. Co. $2.25.
Thayer, S. H. Songs from Edgewood. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
True, H. L. The Cause of the Glacial Period. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. $1.
Ware, F. M. First-Hand Bits of Stable-Lore. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Waterhouse, A. J. Lays for Little Chaps. New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.
Watson, William. Selected Poems. John Lane.
Weeks-Shaw, Clara. A Text-Book of Nursing. New ed. D. Appleton & Co. $1.75.
Weston, J. L. The Three Days' Tournament: A Study in Romance and Folk-Lore. London: David Nutt. 2s.
Wheeler, Catherine. Bright Little Poems for Bright Little People. San Francisco: The Whitaker & Ray Co.
Wilcox, Ella W. The Heart of the New Thought. Chicago: The Psychic Research Co.
Wilder, H. H. Animal Classification. Henry Holt & Co.
Wilson, D. M. Where American Independence Began. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
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is therefore no nearer an election than before, and the opposition to him must be strengthened by these latest outrages. There is nothing to indicate that a single one of the anti-Addicks Republicans in the Legislature will give way.

After weeks of agonized silence, the *Tribune* has at last found its voice about Platt—but what a voice! It says he "will be Senator," and will also be "an adviser in State affairs," thus continuing a state of things which has, it says, been "an advantage to the State." So this is what Dr. Theodore Cuyler and the other Republican clergymen and college professors and men of light and leading, who are indignant at Platt's disgraceful domination of the party, get from the old organ of decent Republicanism. They have not forgotten, if the *Tribune* has, its open charge that Platt was a corruptionist, and its bold challenge to him to sue it for libel if he dared. On April 12, 1895, it said: "The information was conveyed to us direct from Mr. Platt that . . . if we had any regard whatever for Mr. Whitelaw Reid's character, reputation, present welfare, or future prosperity, we would [should] do well to refrain from any further reference to Mr. Platt's practice of disbursing the money of the Republican State Committee by his own check and without accounting." The *Tribune* defied him then, and for many a day thereafter, pointedly observing that the boss's friends "have not yet persuaded Mr. Platt to begin a suit for libel." Its columns would furnish many more delightful excerpts in support of its sudden discovery that Platt is "an advantage to the State."

The figures given out by the Comptroller at Albany, showing the condition of the State's finances, are for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1902. They show the effect of the legislation of 1901, but not to any considerable extent that of 1902. The increase of revenue from the taxation of corporations is notable, the total for the year being $6,226,183, as compared with $4,966,680 for the previous year, an increase of $1,259,503. The fact that $380,567 was collected in organization fees from corporations forming under the laws of this State, as compared with $295,091, indicates that some advance, at least, has been made in the effort to induce new companies to incorporate here rather than in New Jersey, West Virginia, and elsewhere. The rate of the organization tax was reduced by the Legislature of 1901 from one-eighth of 1 per cent. to one-twentieth of 1 per cent. of the authorized capital stock. Of the total receipts of the State ($23,660,775), the amount from indirect sources was $16,051,353, about $7,000,000 less than the expenditures. This was the highest point yet attained for indirect revenues, but will doubtless be somewhat, though not largely, increased for the year ending September 30, 1903. Legislation proposed in 1902 for the purpose of increasing these revenues failed of enactment, notably the proposed tax on foreign corporations and the proposed recording tax on mortgages. The gap shown in the Comptroller's figures between the indirect revenues and the expenditures, therefore, indicates about what the deficit for this year will be. Last year the difference was made up by a direct tax; this year it will be made up from the surplus. The figures just made public clearly indicate why the session of the Legislature this winter must be largely occupied in devising new sources of indirect revenues if the Governor's policy of permanently abolishing the direct tax is to prevail.

Superintendent Kilburn of the State Banking Department directs attention to the tendency of trust companies to attract savings deposits to themselves, and he considers this an element of danger in times of financial disturbance. Deposits of savings banks, as he points out, are of two kinds, or rather they come from two classes in the community. One portion consists of the savings of wage workers and other persons of small means. The other consists of surplus funds of the well-to-do classes, and even of those who may be ranked as capitalists. The latter avail themselves of the facilities offered by savings banks to distribute their investments. Thus, a man or woman of large means may have deposits of $3,000 each in half a dozen savings banks. Although savings banks are not designed for this class of depositors, there is no way to prevent them from making such deposits, nor does any visible harm arise from it, unless it be the lowering of the rate of interest from the competition of capital. But the competition of capital in the loan market would not be prevented by excluding this class of depositors from savings banks; it would merely take other forms. Quite different is the danger which arises from the accumulation of savings deposits in trust companies. The danger ensues from the character of the savings depositor, who is most commonly inclined to give ear to rumors of bank disaster and to panic generally. The savings bank is empowered by law to require thirty or sixty days' notice of an intention to withdraw deposits. It is thus enabled to curb an unreasoning panic. The trust company must pay its deposits on demand, and accordingly it is destitute of the power, which the savings bank holds and exercises in cases of necessity, to check a panic. All that the Superintendent says is quite true, but the only remedy for the case lies in moral suasion—in warning the trust company not to take savings deposits and to the savings depositor to put his money in the savings bank rather than in the trust company.

About one in ten of the non-union workers in New York State joined the union ranks during the past year, as appears from an inspection of the figures submitted by the State Labor Commissioner. Such a rate of growth would need to be continued for only a few years to give the walking delegates practical control of the labor market in this State. Fortunately for those who employ labor, and for the workers themselves, this rate of increase is not likely to continue. The growing arrogance of the unions may be expected to deter self-respecting applicants for membership, and will surely stretch to the breaking-point the patience of employers. It is a warrantable conclusion that, but for its extreme views, union membership would be larger in industrial New York. In Minnesota, for instance, it is a little over 48 per cent. of those engaged in manufacturing industries and the small trades, as compared with only about 39 per cent. in this State. This showing in New York ought to encourage a disposition to resist the extravagant demands of the unions. Politicians may learn from it, too, that a majority of the workers are opposed to union tyranny, and are not to be delivered at the polls by labor leaders.

Gen. Greene has made an effective start in his new office of Police Commissioner by suspending without pay the captains and inspectors against whom there are charges pending. He has also terminated the influence of Inspector Cross, whose prominence hitherto has been a disgrace to the Administration, by making Inspector Brooks commander of Manhattan and the Bronx. Still another admirable move is his placing Inspector Cortright at the head of the entire force as chief inspector, in accordance with the recommendation of the Philbin Commission. Gen. Greene's second day in office was marked by as striking and important reforms as was his first. He remanded all the wardmen to patrol duty. At last we have a Police Commissioner who recognizes a state of affairs which is simply notorious. Gen. Greene does not hesitate to say that there is blackmailing, and that the wardmen have done a lot of the collecting. There is thus no procrastination, no waiting for "evidence" with a promise to act after careful, legal investigation. Gen. Greene's next step should be the remanding to patrol duty of the roundsmen and sergeants now attached to the staffs of the inspectors, and the reorganization of the Detective Bureau. Gen. Greene took still another excellent step in coming out strongly for a police-signal system. On the question of the liquor-law enforcement, Gen. Greene was

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